

VOLUME 30, NUMBER 3 • NOVEMBER, 1959

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

**American Association
of Junior Colleges**

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

The American Association of Junior Colleges will make available to libraries the present and future volumes of the *JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL* in microfilm form. Inquiries should be directed to University Microfilm, 313 North First Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

VOLUME XXX

NOVEMBER 1959

NUMBER 3

PHI THETA KAPPA—AN APPRAISAL	James W. Reynolds	123
A PHILOSOPHY FOR THE JUNIOR COLLEGE WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM	James F. Rogers	125
THE CHANGING MATHEMATICS CURRICULUM AND THE JUNIOR COLLEGE	William Wooton	132
WHEN <i>LIFE</i> (et al.) LOOKS AT THE JUNIOR COLLEGE	Robert Ascher	136
STUDENT DEFICIENCIES AND THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE DILEMMA	Harold H. Kastner, Jr.	140
THIRTY YEARS OF GROWTH FOR PHI THETA KAPPA	Margaret Pannill	143
CALIFORNIA JUNIOR AND SENIOR COLLEGES WORK TOGETHER IN CURRICULUM PLANNING	Jean Stephens	147
DEVELOPING THE LIBRARY IN THE SMALL JUNIOR COLLEGE	William E. Jones	149
WHAT DO THEY THINK OF US?	Elbert K. Fretwell and Kenneth T. Doran	158
FIND THE CRIMINAL	Martha Knight Yorkston	163
CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED OF INTEREST TO JUNIOR COLLEGE READERS		166
FROM THE EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR'S DESK	Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.	173
THE JUNIOR COLLEGE WORLD	Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.	178
RECENT WRITINGS JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS		182

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL is published monthly from September to May, inclusive. Subscription: \$4.00 a year, 50 cents a copy. Group subscriptions, to faculty of institutions which are members of the American Association of Junior Colleges: \$2.00 a year. Communications regarding editorial matters should be addressed to James W. Reynolds, College of Education, The University of Texas, P.O. Box 1998, Austin 12, Texas. Correspondence regarding advertisements and subscriptions should be addressed to Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., executive director of the American Association of Junior Colleges, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington 6, D.C. Entered as second-class matter November 22, 1922, at the Post Office at Washington, D.C., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Austin, Texas, August 20, 1949.

[Printed in U.S.A.]



PSYCHOLOGY of PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT

Student's Introduction to Mental Hygiene

Third Edition

By Fred McKinney, *University of Missouri*. The third edition of this successful text is a more student-oriented work than its two predecessors. It deals much more fully with the application of basic concepts to specific student problems. It also contains lists of factors affecting adjustment and concrete suggestions for dealing with problems. However, the PSYCHOLOGY of PERSONAL ADJUSTMENT is not merely a "do and don't" book. In addition to specific items, the author provides a thorough coverage of the theoretical analysis of adjustment.

Professor McKinney examines adjustment at various stages of life, from childhood to old age. He considers such areas of adjustment as study, efficiency, sex life and marriage, vocations, groups, and social life. Numerous case histories of students with adjustment problems are included. The book also contains suggestions for classroom discussion and personal inventory projects. 1959. Approx. 568 pages illus. Prob. \$6.50.

ESSENTIALS of HEALTHIER LIVING

A Practical College Text in Personal and
Community Health

By Justus J. Schifferes, *Director, Health Education Council*. This new book by the author of the widely adopted HEALTHIER LIVING (Wiley, 1954) is an outgrowth of the results of a sampling of over 250 teachers which was conducted to determine what topics instructors prefer and what emphasis each should receive. The results of this survey are reflected in the five major areas covered in the text: personal health; education for family living; mental health; health hazards; and community health. Throughout, Schifferes makes use of the latest medical and social research and examines the significance of such subjects as tranquilizers, space medicine, the new Essential 4 Foods Guide weight control, psychology of accidents, voluntary health insurance, and radiation hazards. The book contains numerous illustrations, anatomical drawings, charts, graphs, historical prints, and photographs, many with color, all original. Many teaching aids are included. 1959. Approx. 352 pages. Illus. Prob. \$5.00.

Send for examination copies.

JOHN WILEY & SONS, Inc.

440 Fourth Avenue

New York 16, N.Y.

The NEW 4th Edition
INTRODUCTION TO BUSINESS

by Glos and Baker

. . . for the first collegiate course in business

Here is a fresh, interesting, challenging book with emphasis on the role of management. It is especially valuable for use in junior colleges for an introductory course. It will also carry its load when business offerings must be limited. It digs into the real "meat" of business principles and also serves as an excellent guide to help in the choosing of a business career.

SOUTH-WESTERN PUBLISHING CO.

(Specialists in Business and Economic Education)

Cincinnati 27—New Rochelle, N.Y.—Chicago 5—San Francisco 3—Dallas 2

Subscribe Now to

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

Because:

—America today should be well informed about the fastest growing phase of education.
—It is the only national periodical devoted to the junior-college movement.

Subscription price, \$4.00 a year

1785 Massachusetts Ave., N.W.

Washington 6, D.C.

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME XXX

NOVEMBER 1959

NUMBER 3

Phi Theta Kappa—An Appraisal

JAMES W. REYNOLDS

ELSEWHERE in this issue of *Junior College Journal* appears an article, "Thirty Years of Growth for Phi Theta Kappa," written by Margaret Pannill, a member of the faculty of Navarro Junior College, and an honorary member of national Phi Theta Kappa. The article is informative and well worth the time of the reader.

When the manuscript was first read for publication in *Junior College Journal*, the Editor's thoughts naturally turned to the time he was Dean of Fort Smith Junior College, and to the chapter of Phi Theta Kappa in that educational institution. These thoughts led, in turn, to a reappraisal of the effectiveness of that chapter, and to a consideration of the significance of this organization in the junior-college movement.

Four factors make this editorial appropriate. First, preceding issues of the *Journal* have devoted very little space to that important aspect of the junior college: the extra-class organizations. Over the past two years there have been 147 articles, exclusive of editorials and the regular features published. Of this number, only four, or approximately two per cent, dealt with extra-class organizations. Second, Phi Theta Kappa is observing its thirtieth anniversary of its official designation by the American Association of

Junior Colleges as the honor society for junior colleges. Third, Phi Theta Kappa occupies a strategic position in the long-time interest which junior college leaders have had in developing leadership potentialities among strong students in these institutions. Fourth, the launching of the program to improve administration in junior colleges financed by the Kellogg Foundation has definite implications for this phase of the junior-college program.

There has been a considerable interest shown by junior-college leaders over the years in helping students develop leadership potentialities. Evidence substantiating this statement may be found not only in the literature written about junior colleges, but in statements of purpose appearing in junior college catalogues, and in the curriculum and the structural programs of these institutions. In the last of these sources, the instructional program, superiority has been claimed by junior college leaders; a superiority which rests on more direct teacher-student relations, and on the teachers devoting all their time to instruction.

In more recent years, an increased amount of attention has been devoted in the junior college to helping the so-called gifted student develop to his fullest capacity. Many special programs have been

initiated to achieve this purpose to the end that material progress has been made.

Phi Theta Kappa as the officially designated honor society of the junior colleges has much to offer in implementing programs of leadership-development, and in assisting the gifted students.

In the first place, by its very nature, Phi Theta Kappa singles out these students for membership. As Miss Pannill points out in her article, "Phi Theta Kappans . . . are not bookworms." She goes on to point out the many evidences of leadership which they display in their respective junior colleges. Thus the Phi Theta Kappa chapters are made up of members who possess both recognized leadership traits and high academic achievement records.

A second quality possessed by Phi Theta Kappa is its respectable age. While the current academic year, 1959-60, marks its thirtieth anniversary as the officially-designated junior college honor society, its history actually goes back to 1910. This makes it, in one sense, ten years older than the American Association of Junior Colleges. This long life of the organization assures its permanence and the significance of its contribution.

The fact that Phi Theta Kappa is a national organization further qualifies it to serious consideration as a means for developing leadership and helping gifted students. The national nature of the organization facilitates the maintenance of desirable standards among the chapters, and for the establishment of new chapters. Moreover, the existence of chapters in many junior colleges affords an opportunity for the interchange of ideas among

these chapters resulting in mutual advantages.

Finally, since Phi Theta Kappa is the officially designated honor society for junior colleges, its chapters are located in both public and private institutions. This more comprehensive coverage eliminates the restrictiveness which often hampers efforts which are confined to one type or the other.

By way of summary, one observes that junior colleges have been committed to the development of leadership among their students as well as the development of the potentialities of gifted students. It has been demonstrated that Phi Theta Kappa as an organization is qualified to help discharge these commitments. This raises the question of how best this help may be contributed. As the writer sees it there are two suggestions which will serve as answers to this question.

In the first place, program planning by individual chapters should be focused directly on the two commitments. This involves nothing new, for such a focus has been made for several years in many of the chapters. In others, however, there will be a need for greater activity along this line.

A second suggestion is to increase the number of junior colleges in which chapters are located. Currently, about one-third of the junior colleges are represented. Although, eligibility for chapters depends on accreditation, there are many junior colleges without chapters which meet the qualifications. To the extent that an increased number of chapters is achieved, the ability of the junior college movement to meet the commitments will be facilitated.

A Philosophy for the Junior College with Implications for Curriculum

JAMES F. ROGERS

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE, although peculiarly American, nevertheless owes its origin and subsequent development to those forces which have contended for the domination of American education. A cursory examination of American higher education will reveal the lack of a coordinated system. This is true from the standpoint of control, which is due to the peculiar American political philosophy, and it is equally true of types of unit organization and function which, to some extent, result from that philosophy. In this article, attention will be directed toward the origins and subsequent modifications of the structure of American higher education and the rationale which is the substance that gives rise to the institutional form.

English institutions are the immediate antecedents of most of the early social structures in this country. Since the United States was politically controlled by England for more than 150 years, the situation could hardly have been otherwise. At the same time many of the ideas incorporated in the English patterns were of still other cultural origins.

The philosophical schools of Athens, the rhetorical schools of Rome, the medical school which began in Salerno during the ninth century, and the school of law

at Bologna during the following century anticipated the form which higher education has taken during the modern era. These developments culminated in the corporate structure assumed by the University of Paris during the eleventh century. This form became widely imitated in England and on the Continent.

Knowledge at that time was very meager. The quadrivium and the trivium were present, and the work of Aristotle was being incorporated as it was reconciled with church doctrine. The limits of knowledge at the time largely dictated the curriculum. The same offerings were to be found at Oxford and Cambridge at a somewhat later time. What had begun as a curriculum for clergymen and teachers gradually became at a later date the requirements for all who considered themselves to be liberally educated. The extremes to which these requirements were carried in the education of the English gentlemen present a grotesque silhouette of contemporary English culture.

The influence of Emanuel College, Cambridge, on the establishment of Harvard, the first American college, led Cotton Mather to remark as follows:¹

¹ Cotton Mather, *Magnolia Christi Americana; or The Ecclesiastical History of New England*, Book III (London: The Bible and Three Crowns in Cheapside near Mercers Chappel, 1702), Seven Books, p. 216.

JAMES F. ROGERS is Director of Education,
Quartermaster School, Fort Lee, Virginia.

If New England hath been in some Respects *Immanuel's Land*, it is well; but this I am sure of, *Immanuel-College* contributed more than a little to make it so . . .

Many of the English characteristics were transmitted to Harvard by her Puritan parent.

To one who is unfamiliar with American educational history, it comes as a surprise to learn that the advent of colleges preceded secondary schools by more than a century. Harvard opened in 1636 with a three-year curriculum such as was common in England, but by 1653 this was extended to four years in order to compensate for the lack of secondary education. Yale realized the same experience in 1710 after having begun in 1700. Thus the entity of the three-year liberal arts curriculum of the English college had been expanded to four years in colonial America.

In summarizing the development of American higher education to 1800 one might consider the following words of a noted historian:

Little change had been made in it since colonial times. The common schools were what they had been from the first; the academies were no more changed than the schools. . . . The method of instruction (in the universities) had not changed in the interval, being suited to children fourteen years of age; the instruction itself was poor, and the discipline was indifferent. Harvard College had not in eighty years made as much progress as was afterward made in twenty. Life was quickening within it as within all mankind—the spirit and vivacity of the coming age would not be wholly shut out; but none the less the college resembled a priesthood which had lost the secret of its mysteries, and patiently stood before cold altars, until God

should vouchsafe a new dispensation of sunlight.²

The University of Paris was not only the prototype of the English universities, it was imitated on the Continent as well. In German universities certain emphases were found which were not present in the English institutions. Contact with these universities was to have a dynamic influence on American higher education.

The high degree of specialization within the German university was in sharp contrast to the "whole round of studies" of the English universities. The general cultural program was completed in the gymnasium. This specialization in the German universities led to the development of new methods of instruction and to a union of research and teaching.

The seminar method was first employed in philology at Göttingen and Halle during the eighteenth century. Hospitals and laboratories were used as definite instructional resources. The realistic movement in education had not only brought emphasis on mathematics and science, but it had extended the scientific method to other fields as well. Most of the productive scholars of Germany emerged within the universities in contrast with the situation in England where nearly all of them labored outside the academic circle.

The earliest American students to find their way to the German universities were amazed at the great differences between those institutions and the American colleges. Their number reached 200 by 1850 and increased so rapidly thereafter that

² Henry Adams, *History of the United States of America* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1917), Vol. I, pp. 76-77.

approximately 10,000 had attended those institutions prior to World War I. Among the earliest American students to attend German universities were George Ticknor, later professor at Harvard; Theodore Dwight Woolsey, who became president of Yale; Edward Everett, who was to be president of Harvard; George Bancroft, the noted Harvard historian; J. B. Angell, who became president of the University of Vermont and later Michigan; A. D. White, later president of Cornell; Daniel Coit Gilman, who was to serve as president of the University of California and later Johns Hopkins; and W. W. Folwell, who became president of the University of Minnesota. These men, and others who studied in Germany, became imbued with the German ideal of scholarship and on returning made a concerted effort to revolutionize the American colleges.

Nicholas Murray Butler and Charles W. Eliot became the spokesmen for another influential group of educators who contended that only certain aspects of the German plan were desirable for the American college. They held that American students were not as advanced intellectually as the German students at the completion of secondary school. The break between the general prescriptive studies of the gymnasium and the freedom and specialization of the German university was too abrupt. Yet the demand for the incorporation of certain characteristics of the German institutions was incessant. The arrangement which resulted was due in part to a solution which was found to another issue which had arisen in the American colleges, the "elective system."

While the elective principle had been

introduced at Virginia by Jefferson (an indication of the French influence on his thinking), the practice had enjoyed only a limited success generally. Prescription of the "whole round of studies" which had been common to the English arts course was still the rule. As late as 1842 Francis Wayland was able to state:

The present system of collegiate instruction is very much the same throughout the United States. With but very few exceptions it consists of a four-year course, terminating in graduation, all the students pursuing the same studies, the same labor being required from all, and the same time being allotted to each. I merely allude in these few words to the character of the system. . . . The older institutions have in no important respect ever ventured to deviate from it, and the new ones have considered their own organization perfect in just so far as they have been able to approximate it.³

Improvements in the economic condition of America, combined with the opening up of new fields of study, resulted in a continual increase in college offerings. The possibility of encompassing the whole round of studies and at the same time attaining a high level of scholarship became more remote with each scientific and literary advance. The situation was paradoxical; this was the basic problem resulting from the meeting of the philosophies of the English college and the German university. The necessity for adjustment was forcing itself upon American education with a large measure of inevitability, and no small innovation could cope with such a question. Without reservation one may

³ Francis Wayland, *Thoughts on the Present Collegiate System in the United States* (Boston: Gould, Kendall and Lincoln, 1842), p. 10.

safely say that this is the largest issue ever to have confronted American higher education.

The elective system came to be employed as a means to a solution. Harvard led in this development and was soon followed by many of the other leading institutions. This arrangement provided a way to avoid the impossible task presented by the whole round of studies, but it did not necessarily provide for the specialization which many demanded. The "honors system" which seems to have had its American origin at Harvard in the 1860's was a step toward specialization, and the elective system was permissive on this point.

It remained for the University of Michigan to take the final logical step toward the specialization which had become possible with the adoption of the elective system. In 1882 Michigan introduced the "university system" which is now referred to as the plan of "majors" and "minors." Without such a plan for concentration, a student's studies could easily have been nothing more than an incoherent and unrelated group of courses. This culminating development permitted American institutions, particularly in the last two years, to assume much of the character of the German university, while specialization was begun at an earlier age.

As early as the middle of the nineteenth century, President Tappan at Michigan advocated that American secondary education be extended by two years in order to approximate the gymnasial system. Shortly thereafter Presidents Folwell of Minnesota and Angell of Michigan endorsed this view. The acceptance of the "University system" was a conscious admission that the offerings of the last two

years of college differed greatly from the first two. It was becoming generally recognized that both the materials and methods of the first two years were more related to secondary education than to the specialization of the upper two years. In desperation, the Chairman of the Section on Legal Education of the American Bar Association wrote in 1898:

Practically, we have added or sought to add half the German University course to all the English University course and part of that of the public schools which precedes it, and called this a college education.⁴

The terms "lower division" and "upper division" came into use. These were soon followed by "junior division" and "senior division." This movement culminated in the appearance of the junior college, which was an institutional mutation and a peculiarly American contribution.

Extensive employment of the elective system after 1870 served to further differentiate between the upper and lower divisions. In addition to the Universities of Michigan and Minnesota, sharp delineations appeared also at California, at the University of Chicago from its inception, Wisconsin, Indiana, Johns Hopkins, Cornell and a number of others. In an address before the Department of Higher Education of the National Education Association in Boston in 1903, Nicholas Murray Butler indicated the necessity for the colleges and universities to construct a two-year course independent of the offerings of the last two years.⁵ As early as 1891 one observer noted:

⁴ Simeon E. Baldwin, "The Re-adjustment of the Collegiate to the Professional Course," *Report of the American Bar Association*, 1898, p. 587.

⁵ Nicholas Murray Butler, "The Length of

However tenaciously we have insisted upon keeping up a more or less artificial barrier at the point of graduation, there has been an irresistible tendency in a very large number of our most prominent colleges and universities to place the real dividing line at the beginning of the junior year. While it cannot be claimed that there is uniformity of method or unanimity of opinion in regard to the introduction of elective work at this point, that there has been a movement in that direction, can, I think, hardly be disputed. In favor of this dividing line, moreover, there is much to be said. It will probably be admitted that at the end of the sophomore year our students are generally as well prepared to enter upon university work as European students are at the time of entering their universities . . .⁶

Alexander Meikeljohn was one of the last of a long procession bent upon preserving the integrity of the four-year program. Yet in 1920 he wrote:

... I would . . . propose the division of the college into two separate colleges, a Junior and a Senior College. . . . Let us have two colleges instead of one, or better two in one, the first explicitly devoted to the general aim, the second, in greater part at least, given up to special studies. . .⁷

These various arrangements came largely as a result of the meeting of the ideas contained in the English arts college and the German universities. An attempt was made in this country to imitate institutions which had evolved in other societies, and the resulting accommodation was largely a compromise between the two. It remained for Americans to

the College Course," *Educational Review*, Vol. 26, September, 1903, p. 144.

⁶ Charles K. Adams, "The Next Step in Education," *The Forum*, Vol. X, February, 1891, pp. 623-24.

⁷ Alexander Meikeljohn, *The Liberal College* (Boston: Marshall Jones Company, 1920), pp. 150-51.

build a system of higher education indigenous to their own culture.

Some tendencies in this direction were observable as early as the beginning of this century, the appearance of the junior college being the prime example. However, it may be that the conflict with Germany in World War I, in its social and economic ramifications, did more to divorce the United States from German educational ideas than is generally realized. In any case, about 1920 a great amount of fervent experimentation was begun in American higher education. In 1930 Emory and George Washington Universities organized the curriculum from the junior year through the doctoral level into a unit with four divisions according to the nature of the subject matter. The Harvard General Education Plan which was inaugurated in 1946 was an attempt to integrate general and specialized work throughout the four-year program. In 1947 Sacramento State College opened as a four-year institution and for a time dropped the work of the freshman and sophomore years because of the accessibility of local public junior colleges, but the demands of a rapidly growing population resulted in the restoration of the work of the first two years.

The specialization of the upper two years of the college brought a general recognition of the differences between the functions of the upper and lower divisions of the college. This was demonstrated by the organization of the junior and senior divisions within colleges and universities and by the emergence of the junior college as a separate institution.

The American college, for the most part, has assumed its present form more as the result of the struggle between social

and institutional forces than from the nature of the individual whom it purports to serve. The basic question is, will education be better served by continuing to adapt the individual to a Procrustean institution, or can better results be expected from reversing the procedure? Plato, Comenius, Rousseau, G. Stanley Hall and more recent psychologists have clearly seen this problem. One educator observed in 1930:

If we are to define education in terms of maturity, it remains for these maturities to be discovered and defined and a means devised for adjusting the educational unit to them.⁸

Certainly adolescence implies more than a shibboleth behind which lie abysmal ignorance and monumental confusion. Adolescence has a positive connotation, and education must not be satisfied until it can determine the scientific nature of its characteristics. Psychologists agree that adolescence extends over a longer period of the individual's development than they thought formerly. An examination of the literature on adolescence shows that scientific data have been presented in significant amounts through the age of sixteen. Above this age, however, there have been few attempts to approach the study of adolescence. That a scientific basis for education beyond this point has not been attained is shown clearly in a recent publication which has gained wide attention. Writing from their long experience with the four-year junior college at Pasadena, Calif-

ornia, Sexson and Harbeson claim these advantages for the "New American College":

First, the New American College, or the four-year junior college, is educationally the most efficient form of organization for the upper secondary school system. . . .

Secondly, the four-year junior college is the most economical form of upper secondary school organization. . . .

Thirdly, the four-year junior college will provide an adequate length of course and a sufficient number of students to make possible efficient organization.⁹

No one can find an argument with these very desirable results, but they are not, of themselves, educationally advantageous. How can one examine an institution which has as its purpose the enrichment and enlargement of the life process and conclude that certain practices are advantageous because they are the "most efficient," the "most economical," and provide "efficient organization"? Such policies can and often do prove detrimental to the larger purpose of education.

While individual differences must be considered, the ages from twelve to twenty appear to be generally acceptable as depicting the limits of adolescence. Increasingly, justification for the differentiation between the junior college years and those of the senior division is made on the basis of the maturation level of students. More specifically, it is claimed that adolescence ends with one and that adulthood begins with another. Some findings in human development support this conclusion. It is a fortunate coincidence that these psychological findings have endorsed an in-

⁸ Walter C. Eells, *The Junior College* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1931), p. 694, citing D. S. Campbell, "A Critical Study of the Stated Purposes of the Junior College," *George Peabody College Contributions to Education*, No. 70, 1930, pp. 73-4.

⁹ John A. Sexson, and John W. Harbeson, *The New American College* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1946), pp. 42-44.

stitutional arrangement which was arrived at almost entirely on the basis of a compromise with contending educational forces. There is no evidence to indicate that anyone foresaw that general education should terminate with the end of adolescence and specialization should begin with the advent of adulthood.

In those colleges and universities which have retained the four-year unit of organization, recognition is made of the differences which exist between the upper and lower division. The integrity of the traditional four-year program has disappeared; only the institutional form remains. An observation made by Eby in

1932 was more prophetic than he could have imagined.

The first two years have been preparatory, general, cultural, comprehensive exploratory. The method of instruction has necessarily been introductory. The upper years of the college are advanced and professional, and use the methods of research, lectures, seminar, laboratories, independent study, with concentration upon narrow fields. Since the final evolution, the standard college has never had any vital coherency; it held this inner antagonism which may be covered over but can never be extirpated.¹⁰

¹⁰ Frederick Eby, "The Four-Year Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, Vol. 2, May, 1932, p. 471.

The Changing Mathematics Curriculum and the Junior College

WILLIAM WOOTON

THERE IS a movement well underway at the high school level in the United States which seems to have important implications for the junior colleges. This movement is the trend toward a complete revision of the secondary mathematics curriculum. The effect it can eventually have on junior colleges—administrators as well as mathematics departments—seems worthy of consideration now in view of the fact that many of the persons involved in teaching mathematics are unaware of the strength and scope of this movement, and an examination of its origins, its nature and the probable degree of its acceptance by the secondary schools throughout the nation seems important.

First, it should be noted that the movement to revise the mathematics curriculum is not a post-Sputnik development. For some years mathematicians have been dissatisfied with the nature of the college preparatory mathematics program in the high schools. They have claimed, and with some justification, that the mathematics presently taught in the schools is simply not the kind which is most useful today. And what is even worse, it does not give the best preparation for students who will be asked to master the mathematics of the

future. While mathematical research has been expanding its frontiers as widely as any of the physical or life sciences, the secondary mathematics curriculum is little different today from what it was 100 or more years ago. The same cannot be said of physics, chemistry, biology, etc. Although those curriculums may not be as modern as some in those fields would like, nevertheless they are far more responsive to modern developments than mathematics. The only topic in the present mathematics curriculum which can lay any claim to kinship with modern mathematical thought is the subject of probability, and even this material is presented to today's student in the form in which it was left by its most illustrious developer, Pierre Simon De Laplace, who died in 1827 at the age of 78.

This is not to say that there is no merit in any of the mathematics developed before the twentieth century. The trouble lies in the inflexibility of the mathematics curriculum which has heretofore resisted any effort to inject a recent idea into its framework. Inflexibility is perhaps the worst feature mathematics has. Much of the mathematics curriculum is useful and important to the student, but some of it is not and the time has arrived when the advancement of youth along mathematical lines can no longer be retarded. In the

WILLIAM WOOTON is an instructor in the
Department of Mathematics, Pierce College,
Woodland Hills, California.

past, the student has been able to obviate the vast waste of time which is a built-in characteristic of the high school program by overcoming his deficiencies at the college level. Today the continuation of this policy is going to hamper seriously the production of new mathematics. The subject is becoming too vast for a student to march across its expanse at the same rate he did in the past and still hope to do much expanding of its frontiers. A way must be found to hasten the journey. What has just been said with reference to mathematics is equally applicable to the areas in which mathematics is a tool. The type of mathematics in use in the fields of the physical and biological sciences bears little resemblance to that used 50 years ago. In the social sciences, the business world, and almost every corner of modern society, mathematics is taking on an increased importance. But again, the type of mathematics being used is not the type being taught to youth. From whatever aspect one considers it, the present approach to the subject in most high schools is a grossly inefficient use of the time spent.

The main changes that have been proposed lie in the approach to the subject as a whole in the deletion of some material and the addition of other material. Recent issues of *The Mathematics Teacher*, *School Science and Mathematics*, *The American Mathematical Monthly*, and publications available from the Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board all have excellent articles on the proposals of various groups, as well as the results of using modern material in the classroom.

The Mathematical Association of America, the National Council of Teach-

ers of Mathematics, the Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board, and the School Mathematics Study Group sponsored by the National Science Foundation are among those proposing changes in the mathematics curriculum. Since the first two of these organizations include in their membership most of the high school and college mathematics teachers in the United States, it is apparent that for the most part the impetus for a changed curriculum is coming from within the profession. This is in some ways rather remarkable in that changes in the nature of subject matter usually work a hardship on teachers who are normally hard-pressed for time.

There are two major obstacles in the path of the proposed changes, the first of which involves textbooks. There are literally no texts in existence which treat the desired material at the high school level. The School Mathematics Study Group headed by E. G. Begle of Yale University and under a grant from the National Science Foundation is working steadily on this end of the problem and hopes to have available by 1960 a complete set of experimental textbooks covering the entire four years of secondary mathematics. These texts are being designed to bridge the gap until individual authors can prepare their own offerings along these lines.

The second obstacle in the path of curriculum change occurs in the matter of teacher preparation. Most secondary mathematics teachers have been trained along classic lines. Many, even those who majored in mathematics, have never had a course in any of the topics which are to form the basis of the proposed new sequence. The National Science Foundation has tried to help this situation by pro-

viding secondary teachers with funds for courses in modern mathematics. They have sponsored institutes during the academic year at several of the larger four-year institutions which offer the high school mathematics teacher an opportunity to take a year of work along these lines. But this program is only a token gesture compared to the task which really lies ahead. The number of teachers who must be trained or have refresher training, if the new curriculum is to have a real impact on the future of mathematics, is staggering.

The Commission on Mathematics of the College Entrance Examination Board has offered some suggestions with regard to this problem. They have prepared a pamphlet entitled, "The Education of Secondary School Mathematics Teachers," which is available free to anyone who writes to: Executive Director, Commission on Mathematics, College Entrance Examination Board, 425 West 117 Street, New York 27, New York. Among the many other valuable suggestions contained in this pamphlet is one directed primarily to the colleges. The Commission recommends the establishment of courses at the college level aimed specifically at the working high school teacher. They envision a course which will be somewhat above the level of material taught in the secondary schools but considerably below the graduate level at which such topics are usually covered and for which very few secondary mathematics teachers are prepared.

The junior colleges of this country have a unique opportunity to serve their communities in this matter, although they should not attempt to infringe upon the province of the four-year institutions in

the matter of teacher training. The high school teacher needs a course covering topics from the fields of logic, sets, groups, fields, linear algebra, probability, etc. The depth of the material need be no greater than that taught at a number of universities at the lower division level. Some textbooks are currently available dealing in a concise way with just such topics, so the text material is not an insurmountable problem. These facts, together with the flexibility of the junior college curriculum, make the junior college an ideal place to institute such courses. The fact that most junior colleges offer instruction at night is another valuable consideration since this is the only time most teachers have available.

With these facts in mind, the author would suggest the establishment of courses in junior college mathematics departments in the foundations of mathematics. Most junior colleges have people on their faculties equipped along these lines. While they need not be prepared to do individual research in these fields or compare in any way with instructors at the graduate level, they should have some notion of what they are about. In fact, to borrow from a suggestion of the Commission, junior colleges might offer their facilities for the establishment of workshops in this field—a place where individuals with a common purpose may gather together to help each other learn.

In some states there is no problem in the matter of financing such courses. They would clearly fall within the established scope of the junior college and could be treated as a standard item. In others, perhaps a modest charge to the participant would cover the necessary expenditures, although this is the least desirable way to

handle it. The National Science Foundation seems a reasonable source to turn to for support. It already makes funds available to four-year institutions for courses of this type and possibly it could be prevailed upon to support such courses at the lower division level. While a complete program in this material would not be possible, one or two courses could go a long way toward smoothing the path of the secondary teacher in his future work. At the same time, the junior college could be better preparing itself for its own role in the future.

It does not require great perception to see that if a major revolution occurs in the mathematics curriculum of the secondary school, there is bound to arise a similar upheaval at the college level. The problem of articulation is always present. Lower division offerings in mathematics will have to be revised. The extent to which this will be necessary will depend upon the specific material which finds its way into the high school. Certainly the matriculation courses at present offered in the junior college will have to reflect any changes at the secondary level. In addition, there will be the problem of what to do with the first two years of college mathematics which is given over to analytic geometry and calculus, or to a mixture of both called "mathematical analysis." The extent to which these courses will have to be modified to accommodate a more mathematically sophisticated student remains to be seen. The point is, junior colleges should be considering these changes now and not wait until the problem must be solved hastily.

This is a challenge to administrators as

well as departments of mathematics. The administrators owe it to their schools as well as to themselves to become acquainted with the questions which are bound to arise in mathematics in the near future. They owe it to their students to see that the junior college is not left behind by the four-year institutions, a number of which are already actively engaged in a revision of their programs. Mathematics instructors must become familiar with the materials which they will ultimately be called upon to teach. They must prepare, however reluctantly, to abandon the approach with which they are familiar and look at their material in the light of modern mathematics. They should prepare, and this should be a welcome preparation, for students who no longer accept arm waving as a rigorous proof of the fundamental theorem of the calculus. They might even prepare for students who really love mathematics.

Although the question of the mathematical education of young people was raised some time ago, the current crisis in national affairs has sharpened the need for an improved curriculum. The change would normally have been effected some years from now, but with the present climate of public opinion, the process must be expedited. Junior colleges have an important role in this process. They can help the nation while they are at the same time helping themselves and the secondary schools. If there were ever a need for close cooperation between the colleges and the high schools, it is now, and if such cooperation is conducted in a spirit of mutual good will, the nation as a whole will also profit.

When Life (et al.) Looks at the Junior College

ROBERT ASCHER

INFORMATION about the junior college reaches the public via a network of mass communication—television, radio, newspapers, motion pictures, and magazines. Unfortunately, what is being transmitted to the public via mass communication media is often either unheeded by educators or unsystematically noted. Clearly, if one wishes to make known the values and goals of the junior colleges, he should be aware of the biases that may be taking form. It would seem, therefore, that a consideration of the information received about the junior college might have some value.

Of specific concern here is the popular magazine literature dealing with the junior college in the period 1945–1951. A thorough examination of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and the indexes of popular magazines, where they exist, reveals that this six-year span witnessed the publication of a wider range of articles concerned with the junior college than any earlier¹ or later² period. *Life* has been selected for particular attention because it has the largest circulation and the most general audience.

At the outset, it must be realized that popular magazines are designed to appeal

to specific audiences. *Time* and *Newsweek* are primarily concerned with reporting the news of the week to a general audience. In both magazines, however, the news items are used as springboards from which the magazines present additional background and editorialize. *The New Yorker* and *Atlantic Monthly* are planned for a more sophisticated audience. The magazine, *Nation's Business*, has a specialized audience, as does a hobby magazine like *American Photography*. It is not strange, then, to find that the type and content of articles about the junior college will reflect the magazine's

¹ In the period before 1945, there was a number of articles reporting news events and commenting about the curriculum of Stephens College. With the exception of Finch College ("Finch and Current Events," *Time*, 39:38, Stephens held the spotlight with such articles as: "Campus in the Sky," *Collier's*, 114:22–4; "Every Girl Has a Talent for Beauty," *Ladies Home Journal*, 60:90; "Three Trains for 600 Girls," *Newsweek*, 15:34; and "Razzberries for Housewives," *Time*, 38:65.

² The publication in 1957 of two articles—"Why Not Consider a Junior College," *Good Housekeeping*, 144:76–7, and "Community Colleges," *Atlantic Monthly*, 199:66–7, and one editorial, "Community College," *Nation*, 185–82, dealing with the general purposes and values, and emphasizing the community aspects of the junior college—is indicative of the nation's renewed concern with the problems of higher education, and may be prophetic of more magazine articles dealing with junior colleges.

ROBERT ASCHER is an instructor, University of California Extension, and a university fellow, Department of Anthropology and Sociology, University of California, Los Angeles.

pecuniary interests. Articles about the junior college in the period under consideration may be divided into four groups: (1) those in which a particular news event is reported and editorialized upon; (2) those in which a particular course or a particular aspect of a curriculum is discussed; (3) those in which a particular junior college is considered; and (4) those which deal with the junior college in general. Representative examples of each type are given below.

"A Student Affair," *Time* (53:75), and "Junior Grows Up," *Newsweek* (35:74-5), are examples of articles in the first group. "A Student Affair" is occasioned by a torchlight parade in Rutland, Vermont, by Rutland Junior College students. The college was purportedly short \$10,000 in funds to finish the school year. The 116 students at the school donated their own money and campaigned among the townspeople in order to raise additional funds. The article contains a picture of the parade, and a sign, "We Believe in Rutland Junior College," is held by one of the marching students.

The thirteenth anniversary meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges is the news subject of "Junior Grows Up." In addition to reporting the item, *Newsweek* traces the American history of the junior college, dwells on the diversity of junior colleges, giving specific examples, and concludes with the statement that the junior college fills the need for preparing semi-professional personnel. Both articles are sympathetic to the junior college. In the former, there are indications that the parade was orderly, purposeful and even heroic. In the latter, the growth of the junior college is well pre-

sented, and the need that the junior college meets is emphasized.

The photography "major" at Endicott College is the subject of "College Course With a Camera," *American Photography* (44:11-13). The article, an example of the second type, tells how graduates of Endicott have proven themselves in terms of obtaining jobs and how the school's photography "majors" handle the college's concession.

An example of the third type of article is "College That's Tailor-Made," *Nations Business* (38:43-5) in which New York's Fashion Institute of Technology is featured. Interest is focused on the school, its history, status, and success. Central to the article is the theme that at this school, management and labor cooperate for the general betterment of the garment industry. The article emphasizes the history of the school's development, told in terms of the immigrants to the United States who were instrumental in its establishment. Important, also, is the fact of the success of the graduates, about whom numerous examples are given.

"What Is a Junior College," *Parents Magazine* (21:28-9), and "New Colleges for a New America," *Saturday Review of Literature* (33:11-13) are examples of the fourth type of article—those of a general nature. The former was written by W. C. Eells, then Executive Secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges. The keynote of the article is the diversity of junior colleges. The latter article was written by Dwayne Orton, then Director of Education of I.B.M. According to Orton, the junior college is the answer to America's dreams. It will become, according to him, ". . . the American folk school, the peoples' college of the greater

democracy we are building." Orton sees in the junior college ". . . an education institution that has come down from Mt. Olympus to the market place bringing the wisdom of scholarship and practical experience to the felt needs of the local community."

All five of the articles appearing in *Life* in the period 1945-51 are typical of that magazine's particular style — photographic essays, which are familiar on the American popular literary scene. "Commencement" is a photographic essay on the graduation exercises at Monticello Junior College. According to *Life*, Monticello is a ". . . combined girls' finishing school and Junior College." The many photographs of girls in academic gowns may be interpreted as *Life's* attempt to prove its statement that graduation comes ". . . nowhere more prettily than at Monticello College."

"Stephens College Grants Credits" is the sub-heading for another *Life* article entitled, "Courses in Charm" (18: 73-6) which was occasioned by some additions to the Stephens College curriculum. *Life* dubs Stephens as a ". . . progressive junior college for girls which is also part finishing school, has 2,060 students, a smart president, James Madison Wood, and can boast that 85% of its graduates get married within five years." *Life* tells its readers that students are instructed among other things, in how to take a bath.

Life does not take "Gulf Park By-the-Sea" (29:159-63) too seriously either. The magazine suggests that some students are pursuing an academic program, but at the same time it insists that ". . . a good many are settling for two years of the one required academic course (English), two required courses in physical training . . .

and some optional courses like Secretarial Studies, Food A and Advanced Clothing."

Life treats the public junior colleges in quite a different manner. In 1946, *Life* did a feature article on Los Angeles City College ("Junior College," 20:99-103) in which it is stated that "never before has the junior college handled so many students or had so important a job to do." This article sees the biggest advantage of the junior college in the fact that it is not tradition-bound. The junior college, according to *Life*, is ". . . the most adaptable element in the entire American school structure." The "collegiate atmosphere," the architecture, and the athletic field and team performance of Los Angeles City College are lauded. Photographs of police training, airline hostess, dental assistants, and business administration classes, among others, emphasize concentration on vocational education.

Life's treatment of Orange County Community College is equally serious. The sub-heading for this article is: "Two-Year Community College Solves a Higher Education Problem." The article begins by calling attention to the inadequacy of the four-year college to meet the demands for higher education. According to *Life*, "The brightest solution lies in the two-year junior or community college." Advantages of the junior college are cited: its inexpensiveness, the fact that many people do not need four years of training, the fact that such schools are within commuting distance and that training is geared toward the economic needs of the community.

Conclusions: Magazine literature reflects, as well as participates in, the formulation of American culture patterns. It is reasonable, therefore, that magazines

should "like" that which is pragmatic, or at least thought to be pragmatic, about the junior college. The junior college is seen as fulfilling at least two immediate needs: the need for colleges and the need for people trained in the semi-professions. The practicality of a junior college education, the fact that it seeks, in some cases, to train for specific job goals, is emphasized to the general detriment of any of the broader goals of general education.

The variety of junior colleges, even if not explicitly stated, is a second theme; i.e., *Life's* differential treatment of the private institution for girls and the public college. College education for girls, which capitalizes on the fact that the students are girls, is, according to *Life*, a lark. Like America, *Life* likes pretty girls but implies that educating them is a luxury rather than a worthwhile endeavor. *Life* becomes more serious only when considering the "cash value" of education. If an individual were to read all the articles about the junior college appearing in the period in question, it is possible that he might conclude that a junior college is

either a finishing school for girls or an advanced vocational school, or both.

The particular "americanality" of the junior college might also be impressed on the reader's imagery. The history of the junior college is presented as being uniquely unbound by Old World traditions. Its structure, in the case of the public junior college, is democratic. The junior college is "liked" inasmuch as it conforms with the American dream of the availability of education for all. The vigor of youth, the beauty of youth, and even just youth are found in enough abundance in the junior college for it to be favorably recognized.

Finally, the success of the graduates of junior colleges is emphasized; success in business, in industry, even in marriage. Practicality, variety (or possibly dichotomy), success of graduates, and "americanality" are the basic themes that may be identified in the content of this literature. To what extent this literature reflects reality is another problem the answer to which might prove interesting.

Student Deficiencies and the Community College Dilemma

HAROLD H. KASTNER, JR.

MANY community junior colleges which are financed through public funds are compelled to enroll any student who appears with a high school diploma. Placement tests and high school records indicate that many of the registrants are insufficiently prepared for continuing their education on the college level. This situation immediately places the community college in a complicated dilemma. When such students are placed in classes geared for coordination with four-year institutions, there is little hope for their academic survival. On the other hand, if the curriculum is organized around a program which meets the needs of the poorly prepared student, the capable student will not receive adequate training. Ostensibly, a program must be established which will provide a curriculum which meets the needs of both kinds of students.

Any attempt to organize a curriculum which would exclude one of the aforementioned types of students at the expense of the other would defeat the multi-purpose goal of the community junior college; therefore, opportunity for maximum attainment for all groups should be provided. The ideal curriculum should contain a dual program to satisfy the needs

of both groups. It is indeed unfortunate that such a program must be viewed as fatuous at this time. Dual programs would undoubtedly be more costly than those which attempt to provide a standard curriculum. The circumstances concerning public funds are well known; public officials and government representatives at the state, county, and city levels are already hard pressed to provide funds for maintaining minimum educational needs. However, such complications cannot excuse the community college from fulfilling basic responsibilities.

SOME BASIC ASSUMPTIONS

It may be assumed that the maximum academic attainment, rather than the minimum, is most desirable; i.e., all students should be exposed to preparation stringent enough to provide them with the capabilities necessary to attend four-year institutions. This should not be construed to imply, however, that terminal students should be compelled to take the same courses required of the four-year degree students; it does mean that all students, regardless of respective goals, should be required to master an equal level of attainment. There are several reasons for considering this assumption desirable. The most obvious is that the student desirous of attending a four-year

HAROLD H. KASTNER, JR. is Head of the Social Science Department, St. Johns River Junior College, Palatka, Florida.

institution will not survive the academic requirements unless he is properly prepared. A second reason is that the terminal student will more than likely be compelled to compete with the four-year student in all but the most technical and specialized jobs. The terminal students' degree of success in meeting this competition in the business world can be greatly enhanced if they become aware of, and possibly adjusted to, this situation in their respective educational programs. The third reason, which perhaps smacks of acerbity, concerns students who are inadequately prepared. Some of these students are not aware that their exiguous background is inadequate. They believe their high school diploma qualifies them for advanced work. It is not the intent here to consider the products of such practices as "social promotions"; suffice it to say that there are students of this type. Inadequately prepared students must be placed in contact with the reality of their shortcomings; the very nature of the social and economic aspects of their future depends on this. It is explicitly assumed that this enlightenment is a responsibility of the community college. The following suggested solutions are based upon the aforementioned assumptions.

TWO POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Remedial courses are already being offered in some freshman subjects. In many colleges basic courses in English and mathematics are offered which have sections which meet two additional hours a week to remedy student deficiencies. At the termination of such courses, students are ready to enter a second course with approximately the same preparation as those who did not need the extra help.

The first recommended solution, then, is to expand and elaborate upon this approach. The freshman social and physical science courses should adopt similar programs. Deviation from the English and mathematical remedial approach would be to place all students, regardless of background, in the same classes. In the regular class meetings the subject matter would be geared to challenge the student with adequate high school preparation, and additional sections would be scheduled for students needing remedial work. Through this approach a student would be aware of the type of work required of him in the regularly scheduled sections, and in the special sections he would have the opportunity to overcome his deficiencies. Students attending both regular and special sessions who did failing work would need to realize that they must return to special high school courses or drop out of higher education.

A second solution would be to place all students, regardless of preparation, in regular classes, and after the first three or four weeks of each semester those students desiring to do so could be given an opportunity to change their status to that of special student. The students expected to request such a status would be those inadequately prepared for advanced work. It should not be difficult for them to recognize their need for such a status; one or two examinations plus several class periods should make them aware of their academic deficiencies. Special counseling should be given before the "special student" classification is granted. The "special student" category could be carried administratively as a withdrawal with audit privileges. To maintain this classification, the student would be required to

attend regular class meetings throughout the remainder of the semester. If he discontinued class attendance before the end of the semester, a grade of withdrawn-failing should be awarded. This last requirement would serve two functions. It would encourage the deficient student to continue class attendance, and it would discourage qualified students from using the "special student" classification as a means of shirking required course work. Special status would expose the deficient student to the required subject matter, and familiarization with the material covered would help him to repeat the course successfully for credit the following semester. No doubt objections would be raised to this second solution because of the time element involved. However, it should be remembered that such an anomalous program is commensurate with

the students concerned.

The solutions listed above are recommended primarily for freshman level courses. There is a possibility that introductory sophomore courses which have no college course prerequisites could constructively utilize these same procedures. These programs are not intended to be a panacea for the community college dilemma. They are recommended as proposals for action which can be taken now. Emphasis upon the word "action" seems pertinent. The ultimate goal should be an adequate dual program which meets the needs of all students enrolled. In the meantime, it is necessary to act immediately; otherwise, deficient students who are currently involved in this situation will not receive the necessary aid vital to their future.

Thirty Years of Growth for Phi Theta Kappa

MARGARET PANNILL

IN NOVEMBER, 1929, the American Association of Junior Colleges approved the constitution of Phi Theta Kappa and designated it the official honor society for junior colleges in the United States. At that time there were 21 active chapters and approximately 450 active members. This organization grew out of the honor society, Kappa Phi Omicron, established in 1910 at Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, with six charter members.

By 1918, the society changed its name to Phi Theta Kappa and was comprised of eight chapters in the Missouri junior colleges for women. The next few years brought considerable change and growth: the constitution was amended and revised, the charter was drafted, the ritual was created, an official seal selected, a song composed, and an official pin chosen. By 1924 the society included co-educational as well as women's colleges, and soon there were 14 chapters located in six states.

In 1928 the officers of Phi Theta Kappa felt that the organization should attempt to reach all junior colleges in the nation. A petition asking that it be recognized as the national honor scholastic society for junior colleges was submitted to the American Association of Junior Colleges by an elected representative of Phi

Theta Kappa, Miss Elnora Winfrey, dean of William Woods College, Fulton, Missouri. The Association appointed a permanent committee on honor scholarship societies which took two significant actions: It recommended that all scholarship societies then forming apply for a charter in Phi Theta Kappa because of its size, and it suggested certain revisions concerning the content and nature of the constitution of Phi Theta Kappa as a result of information received on a questionnaire sent to all junior colleges.

Following the official recognition by the Association, a rapid expansion began. Now in its thirtieth year, Phi Theta Kappa has 173 chapters in 37 states and the Canal Zone and 3,000 active members. The growth is due, of course, to the work of many people; from Mrs. Elizabeth Moore, dean of women at Stephens College, who led in the founding of Alpha Chapter, to Mrs. Margaret Mosal, the present executive secretary-treasurer, stretches a long line of tireless workers. Among the other leaders are Miss Ruth Barnard, secretary from 1929 to 1934, succeeded by Margaret Mosal, who as a student at Whitworth College in Brookhaven, Mississippi, served as the first elected president of the national organization. In 1956 Mrs. Mosal became full-time executive secretary-treasurer, combining her work as part-time secretary with that of Miss Jean Woolfolk of Little

MARGARET PANNILL is an English instructor at Navarro Junior College, Corsicana, Texas.

Rock, who had been treasurer of the society for many years. Harry Howland, an alumnus of Alpha Alpha Chapter, Little Rock, has edited the national magazine, *The Golden Key*, since 1935, except for the years while he was in service. In addition to these leaders, junior college administrators and faculty sponsors, some of whom were members of the chapters they now sponsor, work faithfully year after year on the campuses and at national conventions. Serving only as advisers to talented students, these people have shaped an organization which stimulates an interest in scholarship and fosters a respect for high standards.

Phi Theta Kappans, however, are not bookworms. Many of the chapters report that their members serve as officers and members of student councils and other campus clubs, as library and laboratory assistants, and as cheer leaders; they play in the band, perform with the college drill team, play football, basketball, and baseball. They are elected as class officers, class favorites, sweethearts, queens and to *Who's Who*—in fact, there is no part of school life which Phi Theta Kappans neglect.

These busy and useful junior college students must maintain a high academic standing. To be eligible for election into Phi Theta Kappa, a student must be in the upper ten per cent of the regularly enrolled student body, with a grade point ratio of 2 (where 3 is an *A*) for all college work—some chapters require, by local by-law, from 2.2 to 2.6. The student must carry a normal load of academic courses, weighted heavily toward those leading to the Bachelor of Science or the Bachelor of Arts degree. Finally, the student must be of good moral character—

as adjudged by a faculty committee and the active chapter. After initiation, he must maintain a *B* average.

When an active member leaves junior college, he still is a Phi Theta Kappan and sometimes continues to serve the society in various ways. Miss Velma Wilson, for example, returned to serve her chapter, Alpha Mu, Texas Southmost College, Brownsville, as sponsor for many years. John Ed Williams, a former PTK national president and son of national honorary member Marvin Williams, sponsor at Bluefield, Virginia, is returning to the convention this year as the banquet speaker. The alumni file of any chapter contains the names of men and women who are useful, productive, and, in some cases, distinguished citizens.

To mark its thirtieth anniversary, the society as a whole, through chapter studies, will seek to evaluate its usefulness by surveying the accomplishments of its alumni. One chapter, Zeta Omicron at Navarro Junior College, Corsicana, Texas, made such a study two years ago when the chapter was ten years old. The conclusions stated at the end of the report which was prepared from the questionnaires may be of interest in revealing the information the society is seeking:

1. Members of Zeta Omicron Chapter have fulfilled their scholastic potentialities in that
 - a. 83.14 per cent of those reporting continued their college work beyond the junior college level;
 - b. 63.5 per cent of those attending four-year colleges and universities received a bachelor's degree;*
 - c. 19.15 per cent of those receiving degrees graduated with honors;

* Several will receive degrees at the end of the semester during which they reported.

- d. 14.8 per cent graduated with an average of *A*;
- e. 74.46 per cent graduated with an average of *B*;
- f. 10.74 per cent graduated with an average of *C*;
- g. 65.85 per cent were cited on the Dean's List;
- h. 51.35 per cent were elected to honor societies;
- i. 28.73 per cent have done graduate work;
- j. 05.4 per cent have received advanced degrees.*

2. The list of present occupations indicates that alumni members of Zeta Omicron Chapter are using their education and their talents acceptably.
3. Active participation in church work by 67.4 per cent is a pleasing indication of character.
4. Active participation in community affairs by only 23.34 per cent is surprising in the light of the varied and widespread participation in campus affairs reported by this same group. Possibly these people are not yet well enough established in new jobs and new communities to have had many opportunities for active community work.† Also 22 reporting members are still students and unable to participate in community work.

Chapter activities are as varied as the campuses on which the society functions and as numerous as the chapter itself wishes them to be. Yearly reports sent to the national secretary reveal that the activities fall into several groups: scholastic and cultural, service to school and community, money-raising, and entertainment. Chapters report such activities as tutoring new freshmen; presenting awards for outstanding work, such as for a term

paper or for being the best student in the freshman or sophomore class; awarding scholarships; entertaining *B* or better students each semester; sponsoring lectures and theater productions; planning and initiating awards assemblies; publishing student directories; supervising workshops on parliamentary procedure for the officers of all campus organizations; supervising reading rooms in the college library; assisting in polio drives and Red Cross blood donors' programs; maintaining student loan funds, and preparing Christmas baskets for the needy. To raise money, largely to finance a delegation at the national convention, chapters may collect and sell used books; operate concession stands; sell candy, programs, college sweaters and emblems, cakes, and greeting cards; or sponsor a silver tea. For entertainment chapters may sponsor picnics, skating parties, banquets, and dances. Following is a representative report from Zeta Rho Chapter, Wesley Junior College, Dover, Delaware, which appeared in *The Golden Key* for May, 1952:

Gave a graduation tea for high school seniors at which students from surrounding towns were invited.

Co-operated with college in securing Acme slips for a television set.

Presented two musical programs.

Presented a Phi Theta Kappa medal to outstanding student.

Gave two musical, three educational, and three chapel programs.

Sponsored bowling party, skating party, and basketball game between boys' and girls' varsity teams.

Planned trip to DuPont Museum.

* Several will receive degrees at the end of the semester during which they reported.

† One couple reported having moved five times in almost as many months—all on the job.

While each chapter has freedom in choosing its activities, it is urged to enter into four activities sponsored by national Phi Theta Kappa: keep a chapter history

each year in the form of a scrapbook, contribute to the national scholarship fund, write for *The Golden Key*, and participate in the national study program. At the yearly convention, those chapters and individuals that have been outstanding in these activities are presented awards.

Any junior college eligible to petition for a chapter in Phi Theta Kappa would find the establishment of a chapter beneficial. The enthusiasm of the sponsors, who work directly with members, is often matched by that of the college administrators. One president, Dr. George O. Kildow, former president of the American Association of Junior Colleges, was made an honorary member in the spring of 1959 when the convention was held at his school, North Idaho Junior College, Coeur d'Alene. Dr. Kildow says;

... In our school both the sponsor, Miss Dunnigan, and I feel that the activities of PTK on our campus have made a great contribution toward interest in higher scholarship. Having the honor of entertaining the national convention here last April was a event which created more school spirit and more student-faculty cooperation than anything that has happened here in the last fifteen years.

If everyone will give PTK the support it deserves, it can be a real asset to the school and community.

The current AAJC president, Marvin G. Knudson, feels that "Phi Theta Kappa serves as an incentive for students to work

to capacity and to be proud of scholastic ability . . . In striving to establish an academic atmosphere of excellence, Phi Theta Kappa performs a service for all those who are truly interested in the educational development of our youth."

On April 21-23, 1960, at the Hilton Hotel in San Antonio, Texas, Phi Theta Kappans will assemble again for their convention. All junior college administrators are invited, even urged, to attend this meeting, where all speakers will be former active members and where past officers and honorary members will be recognized and honored. There will be some in the group who can remember the activities of every convention held by national Phi Theta Kappa—the deliberations on ways to maintain standards and to encourage students to do their best, wrestling with the problem of amalgamating state-supported coeducational colleges with private schools, and the recognition of PTK's maturity in appointing a full-time executive secretary-treasurer. It is at these conventions that visitors can witness the spirit of Phi Theta Kappa, for whether a Phi Theta Kappan is an active member, alumnus, or honorary member—and there are about 20 of these—he wears his golden key with pride, and he tries to remember the meaning of the name Phi Theta Kappa—wisdom, aspiration, and purity.

California Junior and Senior Colleges Work Together in Curriculum Planning

JEAN STEPHENS

COOPERATION in curriculum building between two-year and four-year colleges is becoming more evident each year. One of the most successful examples of this cooperation is sponsored by the California Journalism Association of Junior Colleges, now in its third year as a statewide organization.

In 1957 the Northern Section of the association proposed the formation of a statewide organization by amalgamation with the Southern Section. The next step was for this group to join with the California Intercollegiate Press Association of the four-year colleges for an annual conference. This conference brought together journalism instructors from three levels—junior college, state college, and university—in an atmosphere conducive to a realization of the common responsibility of the three levels: the education and training of future journalists.

With the 66 California junior colleges providing 78 per cent of the lower division training, the two associations publicly recognized the need for more cooperation, and at their 1958 meeting at Fresno, a committee composed of two representatives from each level was appointed. In the two years that the committee has existed, considerable progress has been

made. After the March 7, 1959, meeting at the University of Redlands, the committee was able to agree upon a two-point approach to the transfer program:

- I. A course in Introduction to Mass Communications Media seems readily acceptable to most of the four-year institutions. This is a one-semester course of two or three units, depending upon the schools involved. The course should adhere as closely as possible to the recommended course outline, but it is believed the course content may be more flexible than that of the newswriting courses. (Neither this course nor the newswriting courses to follow should involve work on campus publications as part of the course content.)
- II. A two-semester (3-3) course in Newswriting and Reporting following the suggested course outlines developed by the JAJC curriculum committee is acceptable to many of the four-year institutions. The committee recommends that certain qualifications be adopted for a transfer student in newswriting and reporting. The student should be able to:
 - A. Handle a news story in professional style.
 1. Know how to organize facts.
 2. Know the difference between subjectivity and objectivity. (Keep opinion out of the story.)
 3. Be accurate.
 4. Use proper English grammar.
 - B. Obtain the facts. The student should be familiar with the techniques of getting information, have some ability in interviewing and have experience in community news gathering.

JEAN STEPHENS is an Instructor at Sacramento City College, California.

- C. Understand certain textbook information and undergo certain classroom experiences such as:
 1. Handling quotes.
 2. Writing obituaries.
 3. Covering a limited number of types of stories (speech, meetings, sports, society, courts, and police) with a knowledge of the specific terminology common to each type of story.
 4. Interviewing by telephone.
- D. Write with reasonable speed. The student should be able to operate effectively in a writing situation where he is being timed and under pressure.
- E. Exercise proper judgment. The student should be familiar with news values and ethics and have a minimum knowledge of libel laws.

Concurrently, the junior college journalism organization is continuing its own curriculum committee which for the past three years has been preparing courses of study and units. Through such guides, the association hopes to achieve the level of preparation desired by the four-year institutions to which the junior college students transfer. Attention is also being directed to formulating programs for terminal students. These courses, given in addition to those for transfer students, are designed to meet community needs.

First begun by the Southern Section in 1956, the committee composed a tentative outline for the semester newswriting and reporting course which was mailed to all junior colleges in Southern California. Journalism instructors were asked to check all items they thought should be included in such a course and to suggest items they thought should be added. When the outlines were returned, the re-

sults were tabulated, and the revised outlines were again sent to all instructors for acceptance or rejection. After these were returned, the final outline was prepared.

It was at this time that the statewide journalism organization was formed. The new president, Ervin Harlacher, continued the curriculum committee and asked that work begun in the south be repeated in the north so that the work of the committee should be truly statewide. Accordingly, the revised outline was sent to all journalism departments in the north and further revised to conform to the suggestions of those instructors.

Meanwhile, the committee started work on an outline for a two-unit course in Introduction to Journalism. Steps similar to those outlined above were taken, and the revised course outline is now available to all journalism instructors in the state.

A third outline for the second semester newswriting and reporting course has been compiled and forwarded to members, and work has begun on a news photography course outline suggested by a committee survey on the status of such a course in junior colleges throughout the state.

Because of the vast distances involved in any statewide cooperative venture, the association has decided to have two curriculum committees in 1959-1960. The Southern Section will continue work on the news photography outline, and the Northern Section will investigate the possibility of a mechanics course similar to those offered by some of the four-year institutions.

Developing the Library in the Small Junior College

WILLIAM E. JONES

IN LESS than two years Owen College in Memphis, Tennessee, has built up a library of more than 7,000 volumes. The incentive for establishing it in such a relatively brief period of time was due to the fact that the college was seeking accreditation by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at the earliest possible date, and one of the eight standards of the Association is the development of a strong library with a basic collection of 6,000 volumes.

Owen is a small two-year liberal arts junior college which opened in 1954. Supported almost exclusively by Negroes, it is the first such institution in the United States to have received regional accreditation. Owen's achievement climaxes an intensive effort on the part of the college and its supporting body (the Tennessee Baptist Missionary and Education Convention) to provide on an accredited basis a program of general education with a Christian emphasis.

Although the institution was opened in 1954, a concerted effort to develop the library was not begun until January, 1957. This article covers the period from 1957 to 1958; the work accomplished on building the library prior to this time is in-

cluded here to give a clear perspective of the whole operation.

Before a program of building up the library could be launched, many questions had to be answered first.

1. What should the library budget be for the initial years of development and into what major areas should it be allocated?
2. What would be the most suitable location for the library and what basic equipment and furniture would be needed?
3. What size staff would be necessary to build the collection and at the same time maintain adequate services to faculty and student borrowers?
4. Under what regulation, policies and procedures should the library operate?
5. On what basic philosophy was the library program to be established?
6. What were the essential books to purchase that would aid in building and improving the collection?
7. What periodical subscriptions should be taken in order to have a balanced collection, and which of these should be bound to aid in reference work?
8. What would be the fastest, yet most accurate and economical, method of ordering and processing books?
9. How should the vast number of gift books be handled?
10. Which basic supplies should be ordered and stocked?

These questions formulated the main areas of consideration, and the answers set forth here have proved to be workable solutions to fundamental problems.

For the past three years WILLIAM E. JONES has been Librarian of Owen College, Memphis, Tennessee.

Library Budgetary Allocations. The first year's budget averaged about \$14,900, while that for the second year was \$11,900. In the years following, the annual budget was reduced to \$10,000.

During the first years of operation and development, the library budget was out of proportion to what it gradually gravitated toward as the library became an established and functional part of the institution. The initial year, in particular, bore the weight of heavy capital outlay in basic needed equipment; i.e., stacks, tables, chairs, a circulation desk, typewriters, books, periodicals, and salaries.

Six areas were chosen for budgetary allocations: salaries, books, periodicals, binding, supplies and equipment. After two years of operation, the amount spent on salaries, periodicals and binding became stabilized, while expenditures on supplies and equipment greatly decreased. Salaries and book expenditures increased, but this was a normal procedure.

Following is the budget for the first two years of operation with each area's relationship to the whole budget given by percentages.

ANNUAL LIBRARY BUDGET ALLOCATIONS

First Year—1957

Salaries	\$5,525 of \$14,900	37.08%
Equipment	5,100 of 14,900	34.23%
Books	3,500 of 14,900	23.49%
Periodicals	350 of 14,900	2.35%
Supplies	250 of 14,900	1.68%
Binding	175 of 14,900	1.17%

Second Year—1958

Salaries	\$6,250 of \$11,900	52.32%
Equipment	1,000 of 11,900	8.40%
Books	4,000 of 11,900	33.51%
Periodicals	350 of 11,900	2.83%
Supplies	200 of 11,900	1.64%
Binding	160 of 11,900	1.30%

Location and Workroom Space. In considering library location and workroom space, eight factors had to be examined: accessibility, floor space, space for expansion, workroom facilities, lighting, ventilation, heating, and student control. Experts were called in to aid in making decisions. The library Bureau of Remington Rand sent engineers for consultation. With the eight basic factors in mind, an area on the third floor of the administration building was selected for the location of the library. The engineers then drew up plans for the location and the type and placement of basic furniture needed. The library was designed to seat more than 20 per cent of the average enrollment of 180 students, which requirement was necessary to meet standards of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Workroom space measuring 20 x 25 feet was provided adjacent to the library, and it serves as the librarian's private office. In this area are tables, shelving space, lavatory facilities, desks, periodical stacks and supply storage space. Since visual aids are the responsibility of the librarian, they are kept in the workroom. It was deemed necessary to have ample shelf space particularly during the book build-up when hundreds of volumes were being processed. Periodicals also required a large storage space as back issues were secured and kept on file for reference sources.

Engineers were called in to test lighting of the library during the day and evening hours of operation. Their report indicated that the existing lighting was inadequate, and fluorescent lights were installed to increase library usage, especially at night.

Student control was found to be an

important factor in the arrangement of library furniture. The librarian's desk was placed to give him a constant view of the library and its operation; thus disciplinary problems were virtually eliminated. This also placed the librarian close to the readers and put him in a better position to aid them.

Staff Needs. The factors determining staff needs were the number of students and faculty to be served, the hours of operation, and the total work load to be handled. The student body numbered more than 175 with a faculty of 12. Among the students who attended were 63 enrolled in the extended day classes, and it was decided to keep the library open for 12 hours a day in order to serve all the students.

When the program began, the basic equipment had been installed, and a few books were on the shelves. The first staff was comprised of the librarian and two student assistants, all of whom were good typists, which aided greatly in their keeping up with the large work load. Carefully scheduling the paid and volunteer student assistants solved the problem of complete desk coverage. It was necessary to instruct the student assistants in library routines, and the time spent in training them to handle circulation, type cards, file shelf-list cards, accession books, and many other routine operations was a good investment. With the basic needs of students and faculty handled by student assistants, the librarian was free for several hours a day to work toward the development of the library.

After several months, it became evident that a full-time assistant librarian was needed to supervise basic library operations in order to free the librarian for

service in other areas, some outside the library. With a staff of two student assistants, an assistant librarian with a Bachelor of Science Degree in Library Service and a librarian with the Degree of Master of Science in Library Service, the program moved ahead at a rapid pace.

Rules and Regulations. All procedures were adopted on a tentative basis in order to determine which rules and regulations would be most appropriate. Although all libraries are similar in some respects and have certain basic functions in common, frequently the overall pattern of operation differs markedly. After a semester of experimenting with several basic operational procedures, a pattern best suited to the Owen College Library evolved.

With an evening student body to serve, the library is open 12 hours a day, 9:00 A.M. to 9:00 P.M., Monday through Friday and on Saturday from 9:00 A.M. until 12 noon, a total of 63 hours a week. Periods during which students made heaviest use of the library were observed, and staff concentrations were planned accordingly. Since a surprising number of students use the library during the noon and supper hours, the plan of keeping the library open 12 hours a day was adopted.

Students are allowed to check books out for 14 days with the privilege of renewal for the same period of time. Allowances are made for faculty members to keep books longer, and after 14 days cards for their books are filed separately. Since the total collection was small at the beginning, most of the basic volumes needed often by faculty and students were placed either on reserve or in the reference collection.

Reserve books are limited to use in the library for specific class assignments; however, they can be borrowed for overnight

use at 8:30 P.M. to be returned by 9:30 A.M. the following morning. A file of reserve book cards is kept at the circulation desk. Each of these books has a long blue charging card which is signed and dated each time the book is used. The regular book cards are pulled and filed to prevent these books from being checked out by mistake, and the books are placed on reserve shelves behind the circulation desk in order to control them adequately.

Because of their value, reference books are not circulated for use outside the library except to faculty members, with the approval of the librarian. These reference books are general in nature, such as dictionaries, encyclopedias, atlases, yearbooks, indexes, bibliographies, biographical guides or sets of books, and it would be difficult, if not impossible, to replace them. These volumes are placed in one corner of the shelves in the reading room and the letter "R" precedes their call numbers. As the collection grows, it is occasionally possible to remove some volumes from this collection and place them in circulation.

Lost books cause a problem in any library, and although the number lost at Owen College is small, control is exercised to keep accurate records of them. Cards for these books are kept separately, and after one year the catalog cards are removed and the books are considered for replacement. A one dollar fine is attached to the price of the book to cover cost of processing the new addition.

Periodicals, bound or unbound, do not circulate because most magazine articles are short and can be read quickly. Magazines and newspapers provide an important type of reading since the articles they contain present up-to-date diversified

viewpoints which are not found elsewhere, and they are therefore invaluable as reference materials.

Statistics were compiled on faculty and student circulation of books and periodicals, library attendance, registration, and use of visual aids. As these figures changed, the library's services were accordingly modified.

Other statistics that were gathered aided in building the book collection. Accession records indicated the number of volumes currently in the collection. To speed up the number of volumes added per month, accurate figures on additions by class were kept. As monthly production increased, the goal for the next month was to improve on the previous month's record. Figures often were leads to problems which held up production. Following this procedure, the average increase in the collection was 325 volumes per month. Data are also kept on the number of duplicate titles, volumes added by purchase and gift, periodicals taken and bound.

The desk routine for the Owen College library is simple and, for the most part, standardized. Each student has a borrower's card, and every time he withdraws books his card is stamped to equal the number of books taken out at any given time. In this way, it is possible to check individual reading habits and also to ascertain which books are in a student's possession if he withdraws from school. Faculty cards are kept in the same manner and serve to give statistics on faculty use of the library. The call number is placed next to the date stamped on faculty members' cards to give an indication of their reading choice, and the librarian takes this information into consideration when ordering books.

Basic Philosophy of Library Program. After the basic procedures and regulations were established, the need for a philosophy became evident. One of the first decisions was to follow only those procedures which would assure a foundation strong enough to support not only the required 6,000 volumes but in the future to support 100,000 volumes if it should be necessary. Systems for cataloging, filing, checking and processing were studied from many viewpoints before they were adopted. With the assistance and advice of authorities in the library field, such as Dr. V. L. Jones of Atlanta University's Library School, as well as visits to outstanding college libraries in the area, the librarian felt confident that the basic philosophy was strong.

Since the first job of the library is to support the curriculum of the school with a comprehensive collection in the various subject areas, the librarians found it helpful to refer to the Owen College Catalog for information. Guy R. Lyle's *The Administration of the College Library* was a constant source of information, and particularly helpful in interpreting library resources to students were Marie A. Toser's *Library Manual: A Study Work Manual of Lessons on the Use of Books and Libraries* and Margaret G. Cook's *The New Library Key*. Both of these inexpensive manuals furnished basic instructional material and information on the fundamentals of library operation and procedure.

To increase student interest in the library, recreational reading, particularly in the areas of biographies, autobiographies and well-selected fiction from approved lists, was provided. Close observation was kept on the books checked out

so that these areas could be complemented continually with fresh reading material.

The staff worked with the faculty, students and community to create a library-minded and reading public. Up-to-date bulletin boards were placed in prominent places on the campus to urge library use. Talks to various groups were also given to further this end.

Existing visual aids on the campus came under the librarian's supervision. This equipment had not been purchased from library funds and was, until taken over by the library, spread out in different departments over the campus. The centralization of the equipment greatly increased its use.

Essential Books to Purchase. Certain aids indispensable to ordering and cataloging books were purchased first. Two bibliographies were vital to the acquisition process for the general non-fiction collection: Stanley W. Hoole's *Classified List of Reference Books and Periodicals for College Libraries* and Frank J. Bertalan's *Books for Junior Colleges*. These two sources contain several thousand basic and strongly recommended volumes listed by subject areas and in most cases annotated with information as to price, publisher and copyright date.

Other general works used to great advantage in designing and modeling the general collection, including the fiction and reference collections, were Graham's *Bookman's Manual*, H. W. Wilson Company's *Standard Catalog for Public Libraries 1949- and Cumulative Book Index 1949-*, the American Library Association's *Replacement List of Fiction and Buying List of Books for Small Libraries*, Dickinson's *The World's Best Books from Homer to Hemingway*, Jones' *Guide to American*

Literature and Its Backgrounds Since 1890, Coan and Lillard's *America in Fiction*, Handlin and others' *Harvard Guide to American History*, and Granger's *Poetry Index*. The Sunday *New York Times* Book Review supplement, *Saturday Review*, *Booklist*, *Library Journal* and the *A.L.A. Bulletin* were chosen as current guides to good literature.

The chief aids used in the development of the reference collection were such outstanding sources as Winchell's *Guide to Reference Books*, 7th edition; Shores' *Basic Reference Sources*; Hershberg's *Subject Guide to Reference Books*; and Hutchins' *Introduction to Reference Work*.

Lyle and Trumper's *Periodicals for the College Library* and Faxon Librarians' *Guide to Periodicals and American Subscription Catalog* served as guides to periodical selection. Ireland's *The Pamphlet File in School, College and Public Libraries* helped in the development of the vertical file.

In the areas of cataloging and classification, many library standards were put to use: *Dewey Decimal Classification and Relative Index*, 15th edition; Cutter's *Three-Figure Author Table*; Margaret Mann's *Introduction to Cataloging and the Classification of Books*; Sears *List of Subject Headings*; American Library Associations' *Cataloging Rules for Author and Title and Rules for Filing Catalog Cards*.

Without the assistance of these aids, rapid development would have been virtually impossible. Expenditures for these volumes were considered good investments.

Periodical Subscriptions. The periodical collection, which was one of the first to be organized, was well balanced between magazines of scholarly and popular content. Each part of the curriculum as outlined in the catalog was given attention. A list of 68 magazines and six newspapers was compiled from *Periodicals for the College Library* by Lyle and Trumper and *Faxon Librarians' Guide*, and also included were local daily and weekly newspapers. This list was mimeographed and submitted to the faculty for possible revision.

After the revisions were rated, a final list was prepared. Subscriptions were taken for the following periodicals: *American Journal of Economics and Sociology*; *Art News*; *The Atlantic*; *Christian Century*; *College English*; *Current History*; *Fortune*; *Harper's Magazine*; *Journal of Business Education*; *Journal of Home Economics*; *Junior College Journal*; *Library Journal*; *The Nation*; *The National Geographic Magazine*; *Natural History*; *The Public Opinion Quarterly*; *Religious Education*; *Saturday Review*; *Science*; *Scientific American*; *The Social Studies*; *Tennessee Historical Quarterly*; *Today's Health and Vital Speeches*. Two outstanding newspapers were ordered: *The New York Times* and *Christian Science Monitor*.

The popular magazines ordered covered the field of current events and some subject areas: *Life*, *Time*, *Newsweek*, *Holiday*, *Vogue*, *Look*, etc. The librarian subscribed to the unabridged *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* which served as a means of checking periodicals for indexing purposes.

When the list of subscriptions was completed, a reliable periodical jobber was located to handle the ordering and renewals on a yearly basis. This did not involve any additional expenditure, and it saved considerable time.

Among the magazines ordered, the following were bound: quarterly—*Newsweek*, *Time*, *U.S. News and World Report*; bi-yearly—*Atlantic*, *Christian Century*, *Harper's Magazine*, *Nation*, *Saturday Review*, *Scientific American*; yearly—*Junior College Journal* and *Today's Health*. These were chosen for binding for three reasons: first, they are indexed in the *Reader's Guide*, for the most part; second, a variety of subjects is covered; and third, in most instances back issues are easy to obtain. Collections of other magazines will go back five or ten years depending upon their reference value and the availability of indexing.

Ordering and Processing. Some of the most vital operations of the library were concerned with ordering and processing. Almost 6,000 volumes had to be acquired and cataloged to reach the minimum standard of the Southern Association in less than two years. A systematic organization based on speed was of major concern.

Acquisitions were given first consideration. After the book jobber assumed his duties, the work was reduced considerably. Selected titles were chosen from bibliographic sources and sent to the jobber, and in this way it was easy to order 300-400 volumes at a time. As soon as the jobber could locate volumes, they were shipped, usually from 75 to 150 at a time, and thus they were continually ar-

riving and being processed. By constantly checking new orders against previous ones, the card catalog, and the volumes in process, most unwanted duplications were eliminated. Where mistakes occurred, arrangements were made with the company concerned to return the copies for credit. Out-of-print files were organized, and the titles in this classification were reconsidered and ordered through companies that specialize in acquiring out-of-print editions.

Using this method of rapid order had many advantages: (1) the jobber ordered from individual publishers; (2) sizable discounts were obtained by ordering in large volume through one company; (3) returning unwanted numbers was simplified; and (4) new books were continually arriving, which spread work out and eliminated a storage problem.

In preparing orders, bibliographies were reviewed systematically, taking one subject area at a time, and after a few months, each area of the curriculum was fairly well represented. The areas of fiction, biography and autobiography were covered separately, and the faculty and students were asked to submit lists of books needed in various areas. Fields of individual interest were noted as possible places for expansion of the collection.

As the books arrived, they were checked against the original orders, accessioned, stamped with ownership stamps, and the Library of Congress order slips for printed cards were filled out. With hundreds of books waiting for Library of Congress cards, a method was devised of dating the card order slips and shelving these books by date. Thus, when the cards arrived, the

librarian was able to save time locating individual volumes by referring to the section of shelves with the same date as that on the order slip.

As the cards arrived, books were classified according to Dewey and assigned Cutter numbers. It usually required three to six weeks for the majority of the cards to arrive. The books that did not have printed cards were placed in a separate section to be cataloged during a slow period in processing.

The librarian assigned classification numbers and made modifications on the printed cards while the assistant librarian typed cards and supervised the student assistants in marking spines and typing book cards and pockets. The accession record was organized totally on a numerical basis with the following column headings: date, last accession number used, number of books purchased, gifts, other sources, government documents, bound periodicals, total, withdrawn and found.

Gift Books. Thousands of gift books were received as a result of publicizing the needs of the library. A columnist with one of the large daily newspapers, *The Memphis Press-Scimitar*, on several occasions asked the people of Memphis, through his column, to help this institution in the development of the library.

Several of the college and research libraries in Memphis donated large gifts of books and back issues of periodicals. For example, Albert M. Johnson, librarian of Southwestern College at Memphis, gave several hundred books, a complete set of *Life* magazine, as well as back issues of other periodicals, hundreds of phonograph records, a microfilm reader, and other useful items. Contact with other li-

brarians provided an unlimited source of administrative and procedural ideas.

In 1958, it was estimated that the library received over \$7,000 in usable gift books. Each book was examined for its value and placed in one of three categories: to be added to the collection; to be kept and placed in a study room developed in the dormitory; or to be disposed of. The first group was placed in the processing line along with new books. Gift books were regarded as library property and were handled by the staff in the best interest of the development program.

Basic Supplies. The initial expenditure for supplies was heavy because it was made on a long-range basis. Following is a list of supplies necessary to the operation of a library:

- Book supports
- Transfer paper
- Book pockets
- Date due slips and cards
- Liquid plastic book repair
- Stamp pads
- Rubber stamps
- Plain 7.5 x 12.5 centimeter white catalog cards
- Scotch mending tape
- Pamphlet binders
- Metal card copy holder
- Book or charging cards
- Plastic spray cover for spine of books
- Liquid glue
- Report sheets
- Fine slips
- Periodical record cards (daily & monthly)
- Borrowers cards
- Reserve book cards
- Electric styles
- Alphabetic guide cards
- "How to use this catalog" guides
- "Ask the Librarian" guides
- Wire stapler

Through the cooperation and dedication of the administration and library staff, the initial development of the Owen College Library has been completed, and efforts are being made to refine and expand its services. Without this coopera-

tion, the library requirement of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools would not have been met and accreditation of Owen College would have been impossible.

This I Tried and Found Helpful

Using Literary Works to Illustrate Psychology in Everyday Life

James F. Penney, Boston University Junior College, Boston, Massachusetts

Using contemporary literature to illustrate behavior patterns studied in sophomore courses in the psychology of adjustment has proven rewarding at Boston University Junior College. Novels, plays and short stories offer almost unlimited possibilities for showing how people may react to conflict, frustration and anxiety. Almost any of the mechanisms of adjustment may be shown to be operating in fictional characters, and many good modern plays deal at length with personality formation and development.

The books of George Orwell, *1984* and *Animal Farm*, are excellent sources for examples of frustration and conflict.

Mechanisms of adjustment are well illustrated in Aldous Huxley's *Brave New World*. By using the utopian-type novel, one can readily point out the implications inherent in everyday use of some of the common mechanisms since authors tend to exaggerate and broadly satirize the ultimate results of over-use of such tension reducing responses as rationalization, compensation and projection. Another good reference in this connection is the Arthur Miller play, *Death of a Salesman*.

Personality development may be shown

in a wide drama, such as Sidney Howard's *The Silver Cord*. Several of J. P. Marquand's novels are excellent for this purpose since his literary style involves a great amount of retrospection and detailing of critical incidents in the past. *Point of No Return*, *H. M. Pulham, Esquire*, and *Sincerely, Willis Wayde* are outstanding examples. Short stories, such as Willa Cather's "Paul's Case," are useful in emphasizing the role of frustration and conflict in building up tension levels and the variety of ways in which unrelieved tension may manifest itself in overt behavior.

A culminating unit in many psychology of adjustment courses deals with mental health techniques and programs. A unique possibility for supplementary reading in this area is B. F. Skinner's speculative novel, *Walden Two*, which describes a contemporary utopian community.

Using contemporary literary works in this way offers the advantages of enhancing student interest, relating psychological concepts to life-like experiences, and correlating psychology course work with materials in the humanities and other social sciences.

What Do They Think of Us?*

ELBERT K. FRETWELL, JR. AND KENNETH T. DORAN

WE ARE hearing on every hand these days the cry for more excellence in education. As John Gardner of the Carnegie Corporation pointed out so well some months ago, there are various kinds of excellence in higher education—indeed, in all education. More recently a significant study conducted under the auspices of the American Council on Education by Edward D. Eddy, Jr. of the University of New Hampshire attempted specifically to ascertain how colleges can build character.

A major way in which this is done, according to Vice President Eddy (as reported in the *New York Times* of March 9) is by creating a high level of expectancy—that is, by, holding a high expected level of student performance and by encouraging students to achieve this level. The level of expectancy, Dr. Eddy notes, "rests on the conviction held in common by faculty and students that higher learning demands and deserves the highest possible excellence." Good teaching and good learning are the heart of any college program, be it in a two-year college, a four-year college, or at the graduate level in a university.

ELBERT K. FRETWELL, JR., formerly a faculty member of Teachers College, Columbia University, is Assistant Commissioner for Higher Education in the State Education Department, Albany, New York.

KENNETH T. DORAN is Associate in Higher Education in the New York State Education Department.

The theme of my remarks is that the community colleges and the agricultural and technical institutes of State University of New York can and should demand a high level of performance from their students. And this level of excellence should include a growing responsibility of students to manage their own affairs. One of the striking differences between high school and college is the great difference, ideally at least, in the amount of freedom enjoyed by college students: relative freedom to come and go as they please, freedom to advance ever more quickly to full citizenship with all its pleasures and its pitfalls, and freedom as individuals to become a tremendous success or a dismal failure.

A. What unique aspects of the two-year college bear on student organization?

The newspaper headline announcing the results of the Eddy study read: "Hard Study Held Aid to Character." I don't think many of us here will argue much with this finding. But I would add the comment: What else, in addition to this hard study, helps students to fill their important role as full-scale citizens in

* Mr. Fretwell presented this report on March 21, 1959, to the college students who are members of the Council of Institute Student Government Associations at their annual convention at State University of New York Agricultural and Technical Institute at Farmingdale, Long Island.

today's world? And what role should the two-year college take to help do this? Is there any "peculiar potency" (to quote a phrase from the Jacob study of values held by college undergraduates) residing in the community college, in the ag-tech institute? These questions lead me to five tentative conclusions concerning student government and student-run activities:

1. *Shorter course.* Since the colleges you represent are all two-year institutions, there is less time available for any given student to "break in" gradually, as far as assuming leadership is concerned, in student council or any student activity. This can lead to a desirable rapid-maturing process, or it can lead to ineffective leadership by students and a generally poor program.
2. *Commuter students.* Since most of the students enrolled in two-year colleges across the state are commuters rather than dormitory residents, the amount of time spent daily on campus is less and the opportunity for evening meetings and the type of "togetherness" this can bring is less.
3. *Student employment.* For a variety of reasons, many students hold part-time or even full-time jobs in addition to college study. This is not limited, of course, to students in two-year colleges, but it is particularly noticeable with you.
4. *Closeness to the public.* Two-year public colleges are literally close to the people of our state. Through commuter students in many cases, through local boards of trustees or advisory committees, and through the actual locations of campuses and college buildings themselves, the public two-year colleges are not off on Cloud 9 or in an ivory tower but rather in practical work in the everyday world. To put it bluntly, people are watching you. When you do a superior job, they know about it. When you flop—and I hope you never do—they know about that, too.
5. *Maturing of Institutions.* A number of community colleges which some of you represent are brand-new institutions. The excitement and novelty of being in a new

institution frequently lead to high morale and a close sense of identification by the individual student with the new and blossoming college. As an institution matures, however, it is easy for people connected with it to accept the inherited patterns and to settle into a comfortable rut. In the name of an assumedly important concept of "following tradition," new thinking as to the role of students in a higher institution can easily be stifled. Yet this need not be if student leaders themselves are aware of the danger and will take steps to overcome it. I have only to point to the lively quality of student activities in some of our oldest colleges to make my point.

B. *What are the strengths in student activities as identified by the presidents and directors of the 20 two-year colleges you represent?*

The generous returns of material which your presidents made in response to questions I have asked them seem to identify strengths of student activities as lying in three areas of gain:

1. Gain to you, the student
2. Gain to your college
3. Gain to society at large

First, *gain to you—the student—as an individual person.* Here your presidents felt that student activities

offer practice in decision-making and the application of personal judgment to situations involving the welfare of large numbers of persons;

offer practice in business and budgetary affairs;

provide opportunity for students to develop their leadership potentialities; accelerate the maturation process in students;

help the individual participant harden himself to the realization that his personal wishes cannot always prevail in a group situation;

help students to develop poise and social presence;

afford opportunities for development of, and an outlet for, personal interests.

Then, *gain to the college*. Here, the presidents thought that students activities

provide machinery for students to cooperate with the college administration in improvement and development of the college; foster "school spirit," morale, and cohesiveness in student life; foster good student-faculty relations.

I suppose that in the large sense all the foregoing gains to individuals and to colleges are indirectly *gains to society*. But the strengths which your presidents identified most specifically as social gains were that student activities foster interest in good government, good citizenship, and engagement in democratic processes; and help to channel interests into constructive areas of action.

C. What are the roles of administration, faculty, and students in improving student organizations?

The administrators of the colleges you represent identified many areas in which steps could be taken to encourage student organizations to become even better.

1. The role of administration

a. The administration, with faculty and student cooperation, needs to develop the institutional philosophy regarding how much authority and responsibility student organizations should have. Where do the prerogatives of students acting on their own behalf begin and where do they end? This philosophy should be put in writing and be widely circulated—in a student handbook, for example.

b. The administration should lose no opportunity to demonstrate its confidence in student organizations and

should respect at all times the realm of student responsibility. It should give students the opportunity to make and carry out their own decisions in full recognition that "mistakes" may be made.

c. The administration must provide adequately for fiscal control in the student activities set-up and also for appropriate faculty advisement.

d. The administration must be completely candid with prospective faculty members about any student advisement responsibilities which may be entailed in the teaching position in question. Teaching schedules should be adjusted to take into account such responsibilities.

e. The administration's key role in providing for good communication among administration, faculty, and student organizations was mentioned frequently by your presidents.

f. It was suggested that the administration might investigate the provision of scholarship grants for a small number of academically qualified student leaders of major activities. These might obviate the need for such individuals to take on outside employment.

g. Finally, at the level of state administration, it was suggested that statewide coordination of student organizations, activities, and athletics among SUNY two-year colleges might be provided by establishment of a new consultant's position on the central staff of State University of New York. Obviously, this would call for new and specific budgetary authorization.

2. The role of the faculty.

a. Your presidents find that faculty members who are respected by students,

community-minded, and energetic are particularly effective as advisers. These individuals do not measure their job by the clock. They are aware that teaching opportunities also occur *outside* the classroom.

b. Too much advice from faculty members may be resented. Your presidents feel that a clear differentiation should be made between the student *leader* and the faculty *adviser*.

c. It is seen that advisers do much to provide continuity of organizations from year to year. They also encourage students not yet involved in activities to participate. This helps reduce "under-involvement" whereby some students miss the advantages described above by ignoring the chance to join a club, try out for a team or run for election.

3. *The role of the students themselves.*

a. Some student leaders may be suffering from the problem of "over-involvement." Your presidents mean this kindly, I am sure, but it has been observed that sometimes a few intelligent, effective people with outstanding leadership qualities tend to run the lion's share of student organizations unless there is some way of sharing the responsibilities more widely. You, yourselves, can do something about this by encouraging broader participation and providing a chance for other potential leaders.

b. You can also take special cognizance of the problem of the commuting or working student who has a particularly tight schedule. Some of you have solved this problem of your own scheduling and are particularly well fitted to advise in this manner. The statement by a non-participant in student activities, "I've got to catch my ride home," may

be more significant as a sign of lack of interest or feeling of belonging than as a comment about transportation.

c. Students selected for positions of leadership should maintain a good record academically. This is in keeping with the accent on quality mentioned earlier. Typically, the administration and faculty administer eligibility rules. Isn't there a case for students having a cooperative role in setting up and operating such standards?

d. Your presidents feel that student organizations can take major responsibility for programs of student-leader orientation as well as of new-student orientation generally.

e. Passing on successful ideas from one year to the next is essential. Guidebooks, files and annual reports all help. One president suggests that the following information should be made available: Sample Organization Chart for a Large Committee

How to Participate Effectively in Committee work

How Committees Are Organized

How Committees Are Financed

How Committees Function

How to Plan and Conduct a Meeting

How to Plan a Party

Special Considerations Governing Activities

How to Handle Other Peoples' Money Handling Committee Finances

Sample Budget for a Committee
Having One Project; Also for a Subcommittee

Sample Financial Report for a Committee Which Has Only One Project

Sample Overall Financial Report for a Committee Which Has More than One Project

f. As a concluding opinion, your presidents feel that a central student-run coordinating agency is essential. Such a central unit may provide for chartering of new organizations as well as for an orderly way of discontinuing clubs which have lost support and interest. In many cases the student council or student government organization apparently fills this role nicely. Without such an agency, a series of problems is seen to arise, including the following: too many organizations and the resultant splintering up of membership possibilities; excessive emphasis on the social aspect for its own sake; much talk but little action; unacceptable social behavior with no particular organization having responsibility for doing anything about it; and a general low level of expectancy.

To restate my basic theme: Excellence in two-year colleges is something for which we should all strive. This is particularly important since the eyes of the nation have become focused—in view of recent international and national events—on whether or not our schools and colleges are doing a good job. This is especially timely in view of the dynamic growth of two-year colleges in our state and nation. Taxpayers and citizens are usually glad to support high quality programs, particularly those in which students demonstrate a high level of performance. Thus, it is an individual responsibility for each student to strive to excel in his class work.

My particular point in reporting to you is to indicate that your presidents and directors think you can and should endeavor

to excel—to set a high level of expectancy—in the operation of student organizations, even as in your college courses. The shortness of the two-year course, the tight schedule of the commuter student, the problems experienced by students holding jobs, the "goldfish bowl" aspect of being close to the people, and, for new institutions, the tapering off of the novelty of being new—all of these *can* be roadblocks on the route of progress.

I am convinced, however, that none of you will find these roadblocks insurmountable. I believe that you will be inspired, as your many admirers are, by the significant progress of your fellow students in two-year colleges in recent years:

One president reports that an alumnus of his community college is currently serving as president of the Student Senate at a major university.

Another reports on the glowing letters he has received from parents noting how much their sons and daughters have gained from involvement in student organizations.

Another praises the high level of objectivity exercised by the student court in deciding cases brought before it.

What do the administrators of your colleges think of you? In a single sentence: *They are proud of you, they have high hopes for you, and they are willing to work closely with you and to encourage you to take on even more responsibility for the management of your own affairs.*

Acceptance by you of this challenge can do much to bring about excellence in the two-year colleges you represent. It can bring a *high expectancy level in student growth and character* out of the realm of talk and into the realm of reality.

Find the Criminal

MARTHA KNIGHT YORKSTON

CHAOS is the rule rather than the exception in the field of freshman English today. There is no area of instruction in colleges which apparently has poorer results than this subject. Students and teachers are frustrated, confused and uncertain. Proof that this is the usual nationwide picture for both four-year institutions as well as junior colleges may be found in any college textbook catalog. More texts are published for freshman English than for any other subject. If one were to ask any college textbook agent which texts are changed most often, he would answer "freshman English." If he were asked which field shows the greatest confusion and uncertainty in the variety of subject matter offered under one head, his answer would still be "freshman English." The texts themselves advertise the lack of direction and purpose that exists in the minds of the college English faculties.

Instructors who are teaching the same course from the same texts at the same college very often have completely different results. In one college, students were given achievement and diagnostic tests in reading, writing, vocabulary, and grammar usage before starting their first year of freshman English. Upon the completion of the year's work, the students were

given the same tests to determine if there had been any improvement. In 50 per cent of the cases, the students had become worse instead of better.

Another instance which illustrates the lack of direction and purpose in the actual course content took place during the 1958-59 school year at Paine Air Force Base in the state of Washington. A college English instructor taught the servicemen the regular course of freshman English, under the program of the United States Armed Forces Institute. One of the students received a grade of *B* from the college teacher but failed the standard USAFI test on the textbook used in the course. This failure is not necessarily a reflection upon the teaching or the learning processes involved; it is, however, evidence that there were two different sets of standards which were not too closely correlated.

In some colleges the actual content of a freshman English course depends upon the personality traits of a particular teacher. Sometimes the freshman English sections furnish the individual pedagogues with captive audiences which they use to bolster their egos by giving lectures upon personal experiences, tirades upon political candidates, encomiums or anathemas upon labor unions, or supposedly witty commentaries upon current events.

In 1957-58 Kay Allison of Everett Junior College made a study of freshman

MARTHA KNIGHT YORKSTON is an English and Speech Instructor at Everett Junior College, Everett, Washington.

English courses offered in 22 junior colleges in nine different states. She found there was no correlation in the specific subject matter taught in the various colleges in freshman English. The only similarity was that all colleges agreed the teaching of basic English skills was a difficult problem which should be relegated to the field of remedial English.

There is evidence that entering freshmen are not the only college students unable to write correct and effective English. Many engineering colleges are now offering a course in "Engineering English." Four-year institutions have "refresher courses" for juniors. Graduate schools conduct "brush-up workshops" for candidates of master's and doctor's degrees. All these courses are being offered to students who have taken freshman English for one year in college and who have passed with a satisfactory grade.

One might well ask who is responsible for this situation. The college English teacher could blame the high school teacher, but where are these college teachers to find a scapegoat when their fellow faculty members set up special writing courses for students who have already been approved by the college English faculty? The English teachers stand accused of actually failing to teach the subject matter which they are employed to teach. If teaching English is a task which can be done only by the English teacher, then he is responsible for any failures, but if this is a task for the entire college faculty, then everyone is equally guilty. As long as the English language is the common means of communication, it is the responsibility of the entire school system to implement the adequate use of this means.

There are two reasons why it is difficult for an American college student to learn correct and effective English after entering college. First is the lack of purpose and direction in the actual content and subject matter of the courses in freshman English. The second reason is the refusal of faculty members outside the English department to accept the responsibility of teaching English in their fields. Students are taught one thing in an English class; they are taught quite another in secretarial science, for example. Sometimes the usages are the same, but there are very few instances in which an entire faculty will agree on what constitutes the correct outward form of an acceptable paper or on rules for punctuation. What some teachers will accept in the line of written work others will throw into the wastebasket.

There is no incentive for a student to hand in a well-written paper with correctly-spelled words in legible handwriting or typing when a poor paper is given exactly the same consideration. If he wants to know the correct form to use in his college papers, where will he find this information? Is there a style manual to guide him? If there is, many instructors ignore it. How, then, can a student be expected to follow certain standards when there are no standards maintained for him to follow? One solution would be for the college to expend time and money to produce a style manual which would be accepted and used by all faculty members, all secretaries, all students, all college editors, and all administrators.

Once a style manual had been written and adopted, it would serve two purposes. It would provide a standard by which to judge the non-creative aspects of a stu-

dent's work and would furnish the administration with a means of requiring faculty members to teach correct English usage. When students realize that the style manual is used by the entire college, they will find it easier to comply—correct English usage will be their responsibility as well as that of every person connected with the college.

A style manual can be as elaborate as that published by the University of Chicago, or as simple as that in the appendix of the Merriam Webster Collegiate Dictionary—only 12 pages. Through the use of a style manual, the teaching of correct English becomes a real part of the student's life which helps him in all his classes. It is one sure method of making what is taught in theory become real through practical application.

Freshman English courses with a definite purpose and a definite direction are hard to organize but easy to teach once they are organized. Each college should decide whether or not its courses will consist of remedial work, basic work, or advanced work in freshman English.

Mechanical teaching aids which are now available can greatly assist English teachers in their remedial classes. Movies, tape recorders, and slides can provide some of the non-creative, routine and repetitious work now being done by the English professor.

As part of the inservice training program at Everett Junior College, an experiment in the teaching of basic English by motion picture film has been started. Courses now being televised for teaching purposes are usually not designed for the television medium—they are merely classroom situations on television. This film presentation is an attempt to present the subject matter dealing with the routine language skills in a way that makes it suitable to be used by the teacher as a tool for teaching in any one specific area as well as for an entire course. If a student needs help or wants to review a certain matter, he can use the particular film dealing with that portion of the course for his own study.

This basic skills course will be filmed and presented as single 30-minute lectures on soundtrack film. The series is designed to: (1) relieve the teacher of freshman English from the repetitious task of teaching material which can be taught equally well by mechanical aids; (2) improve the quality of teaching by placing the burden of learning upon the student; (3) unify the subject matter of freshman English so that some order may be brought out of the chaos now confusing the students, confounding the English teachers, and confronting the administration.

Current Publications Received of Interest to Junior College Readers

Alexander, William M. and Saylor, J. Galen. *Modern Secondary Education*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. xiii + 765. \$6.50.

This book is designed as a source of information and ideas for all who work or plan to work in secondary schools.

Barrows, Herbert, Heffner, Hubert, Ciardi, John and Douglas, Wallace. *An Introduction to Literature*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1959. Vol. I, pp. xv + 1331, \$5.50. Edel, Leon, Johnson, Thomas H., Paul, Sherman and Simpson, Claude (eds.). Vol. II, pp. xvii + 945, \$4.25.

These two volumes reflect in their plan three convictions which are coming to be increasingly accepted by American teachers of literature: that the student is better introduced to a subject through close familiarity with a few writers than through superficial acquaintance with many, that he will profit more from regarding the works he reads to be studied and enjoyed on their own terms than he will from viewing them as illustrations of the course of literary or cultural history, and that at the same time he must have a competent knowledge of the historical setting from which these authors and their works emerged if he is to see them as they really are.

Behr, Lyell C., Fuson, Reynold C. and Snyder, Harold R. *Brief Course in Or-*

ganic Chemistry (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. vii + 289. \$5.75.

This revised and expanded edition of the widely used Fuson, Connor, Price and Snyder text presents the fundamental information necessary for an introduction to organic chemistry and includes the application of organic compounds. The revision contains references to many substances of practical value not found in other books—such as vitamins, hormones, and other natural products, medicinals, agricultural chemicals and other substances of biological interest. New chapters on homologous series, naturally occurring esters, and sulfur compounds have been added, and there are new illustrative photographs and drawings of molecular structures. Aromatic and heterocyclic compounds are introduced early and the similarities among aliphatic, aromatic, and heterocyclic compounds, rather than their differences, are stressed.

Chruden, Herbert J. and Sherman, Arthur W. *Personnel Management*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1959. Pp. xii + 670.

Although there is no substitute for practical experience as a means of developing managerial ability, the amount of experience that may be necessary can be reduced when it is combined

with a knowledge of accepted managerial principles and practices. The purpose of this book is to provide the reader with a knowledge of those personnel management principles and practices that have proved to be sound in the light of research and company experiences.

Cole, Luella. *Psychology of Adolescence* (5th ed.). New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. viii + 731. \$7.00.

As in previous editions, the author has tried to present a comprehensive, balanced picture of adolescent growth along all lines—physical, intellectual, emotional, social, and moral. Naturally, the published reports of research in these various phases of adolescent development are not equal in number, scope, or value, but within the limits imposed by the available studies, equal emphasis has been given to developments in each field.

Craig, David S. and Howell, Rate A. *Basic Business Law*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1959. Pp. viii + 912. \$7.50.

Most students beginning the study of business law either know nothing about it or have acquired erroneous notions about it. The use of both text and cases in teaching the fundamentals of business law is preferable to the use of either alone. Principles are more likely to be understood when their application is illustrated by actual situations presenting legal problems which have been decided by those in authority.

Dutton, Wilbur H. and Hackett, John A. *The Modern Elementary School*. New

York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 530. \$5.50.

This book was written to help prospective teachers and experienced teachers understand some of the important improvements which are being made in teaching and the curriculum at the elementary school level. While there are many good books dealing with teaching separate subjects, such as reading, arithmetic, or social studies, the authors have found that there has been a need for one text which would summarize the best in methods and curriculum procedures. This is especially true in colleges and universities where one general methods course is offered rather than specific courses dealing with the teaching of elementary school subjects.

Gauge, John. *American Foreign Relations*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1959. Pp. ix + 593. \$6.75.

Designed as a textbook for undergraduate courses in American foreign relations, this book undertakes to show why we have such difficult problems in our foreign relations today. It also tries to show that the same kinds of problems have always been before our people and, further, that these basic problems will certainly persist in the future.

Giles, H. Harry. *The Integrated Classroom*. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 338. \$5.00.

Turning the weapons of social science on the problem of integrating within the classroom varying racial, religious, national, and socio-economic groups, the author analyzes the nature of the social conflict and provides concrete examples of how it is being handled today around the nation. He offers spe-

cific answers to the questions most often raised and prescribes courses of action for citizens and educators alike.

Glos, Raymond E. and Baker, Harold A. *Introduction to Business* (4th ed.). New York: South-Western Publishing Co., 1959. Pp. ix + 692.

In order to present an accurate picture of the current operations of businesses of all kinds and sizes in our dynamic society, an introduction to business text must be revised relatively frequently. Several changes have seemed desirable in this edition.

Good, Carter V. (ed.). *Dictionary of Education*. (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959. Pp. xxvii + 676.

The primary purpose of this volume is to make available a comprehensive dictionary of professional terms in education that will do for educational workers and teachers what already has been accomplished by technical dictionaries for practitioners in such special fields as medicine, law, engineering, and psychology. In clarification of the concepts and terminology employed in educational writing, speaking, and teaching, it is important to remember the statement attributed to Mark Twain: "The difference between the right word and almost the right word is the difference between lightning and lightning bug."

The *Dictionary* is concerned with technical and professional terms and concepts in the entire area of education. As a general policy, it has excluded names of persons, institutions, school systems, organizations, places, and titles of publications and journals, except where a

movement, method, or plan is represented.

Goodman, A. W. *Plane Trigonometry*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. xvii + 267.

This uniquely organized trigonometry text is arranged in the historical and natural order, proceeding from the specific to the general. In his approach, the author has chosen what is preferable in the modern and classical views, and combined them to their best advantage. A balance is maintained between theory and applications, and the discussions are simple yet detailed. The definitions are clearly stated, and the theorems are proved.

Guidance Service Department of Science Research Associates. *Preparing Students for College*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1959. Pp. 83. \$1.50.

Abilities and interests of all students need to be identified and evaluated. Achievements of all students need to be measured—in terms of individual capacity and in terms of the accomplishments of other students in comparable groups. Almost all students need help, in varying amounts, with personal, social, and emotional problems. Almost all need help in remedying weaknesses in academic skills. Almost all need wise counsel in exploring occupations, considering the career fields that are best for them, and making realistic plans for the future—whether or not college training is a prerequisite. Although this manual is concerned mainly with preparing students for college, many of the objectives and the means for implementing them will be applicable to the

guidance of both college-bound and non college-bound students, particularly at the junior high level and in the earlier high school years.

Hayford, Harrison and Vincent, Howard P. *Reader and Writer* (2nd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1959. Pp. xv + 647.

In its first revision, this book is offered in the continued belief that the main business of freshman English is reading and writing, and that these ends are best served when the technology of language and its human aims are considered as one.

Hoffmann, Randall W. and Plutchik, Robert. *Small-Group Discussion in Orientation and Teaching*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. xiv + 168. \$4.00.

This book demonstrates and explains the use of small-group discussion in conducting orientation classes, and deals deeply and painstakingly with small-group leadership techniques, devices, and philosophy as applied to the classroom situation.

Holloway, William Vernon and Ader, Emile B. *American Government*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1939. Pp. vi + 492. \$6.00.

This textbook is intended as a brief, teachable introduction to American government. The authors have patterned their presentation of the materials for the introductory course according to three main criteria: brevity, flexibility, and simplicity.

Kenner, Hugh. *The Art of Poetry*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. xxii + 357. \$2.50.

While this book requires teaching, it

seeks to place sufficient information at the disposal of the perceptive student to take him a long way on his own; and while a method of teaching is implicit in the book, the experienced teacher will be able to make his own modifications without, it is hoped, finding that the book gets in his way. Much of the commentary has been kept sufficiently gnomic not to impede the teacher who wants to modify or dissent from it.

Montagna, William. *Comparative Anatomy*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. x + 397. \$6.60.

This book is written simply, clearly and with forthrightness, and it introduces the student to the important principles of comparative anatomy, organogenesis, and embryology. The subject is introduced by examining (1) the possible paths of phylogenetic ascension, (2) the homologies and analogies of organ systems, (3) the lability of tissues, (4) their delicate structural patterns, (5) the unity of structure, and (6) the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic forces on the maintenances of the integrity of tissues and organs.

Montagna, William and Kenworthy, Walter. *A Laboratory Manual of Comparative Anatomy*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. vii + 103. \$2.50.

This manual should be supplemented by a textbook and lectures. The exercises outlined here have been kept within the bounds that can be covered in one semester.

Moore, Robert Hamilton. *Effective Writing* (2nd ed.). New York: Rinehart & Co., 1959. Pp. viii + 608. \$3.90.

Effective Writing reflects the author's twenty years of experience with college composition courses and composition textbooks, tempered by twenty years of experience with the problems of the students. Organized on the familiar pattern of the whole composition, the paragraph, the sentence, and the word, it presents rhetorical principles applicable to all types of writing, with special attention to exposition and with constant emphasis on the importance of the writer's purpose and of his audience in controlling his choice of methods.

Mortensen, Donald G. and Schmuller, Allen M. *Guidance in Today's Schools*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. viii + 436.

This book is based upon the conviction that a firm background in the theoretical structure of guidance permits the use of methodology with cognizance and integrity of purpose. Although primary emphasis is on the meaning of guidance in today's schools, a balanced coverage of theory and practice is maintained.

Mulhern, James. *A History of Education* (2nd ed.). New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1959. Pp. vii + 754. \$7.50.

This book is the outcome of courses in the history of education, comparative education, and philosophy of education taught at the University of Pennsylvania for the past thirty years. It aims to present in concise form the historical foundations of modern education, with a view to meeting the needs of students enrolled in courses in the history of education.

Pressey, Sidney L., Robinson, Francis P., and Harrocks, John E. *Psychology in Education*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1959. Pp. ix + 685. \$6.50.

This book accomplishes better than any other the difficult task of converting important factual data into terms which reveal their dynamic and interrelated character in real-life situations.

Ralya, Lynn L. and Lillian, L. *A Guide to Vocations in Engineering and Related Fields*. Santa Monica, Calif: Lynn L. Ralya and Lillian L. Ralya, 1959. Pp. 42. \$1.25.

The *Guide* devotes major attention to engineering vocations but presents them not only as related to each other but as related to vocations in mathematics and in science and to vocations at the technical and craft levels.

Ralya, Lynn L. and Lillian L. *A Guide Reader*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 308. \$1.95.

This reader is designed primarily as a text for courses in scientific writing. It is the outgrowth, as perhaps are most anthologies, of the editor's inability to find in print a book suited to his own needs in the classroom. Although there are essays and collections of essays on scientific subjects already available in both hardcover and paperbacked editions, few are really intended to provide models from which the student may learn how to improve his own reports and papers. Most have been published because of the importance or topical significance of the scientific material they contain, and this is reason enough for their appearance. In the technical writing course, however, the principal

concern must be not with the information itself but with discovering and practicing the means by which the information can be successfully communicated.

Rose, Israel H. *A Modern Introduction to College Mathematics*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. xxi + 530. \$6.50.

The goal of this textbook has been to arrive at a simple, modern, logically sound treatment of elementary mathematics—one in which unity and structure are visible to the naked eye.

Roucek, Joseph S. (ed.). *The Challenge of Science Education*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. xiv + 491. \$10.00.

This is the first systematic survey and evaluation since Sputnik of the cross currents of thinking on all major educational practices in the field of science, in America and abroad.

Shrodes, Caroline and Van Gundy, Justine. *Approaches to Prose*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1959. Pp. xi + 648.

The purpose of this book is to help the beginning college student to understand and analyze significant prose and to develop a perception of the relationship between its structure and meaning. To this end the editors have chosen literature, both past and present, that is worth reading, and re-reading. The selections range from the relatively simple to the complex; some of them will make rigorous demands on the reader.

Smith, Leonard J. *Career Planning*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1959. Pp. viii + 263. \$3.50.

This book is the result of experience over the years of conducting group career planning and individual career counseling. It brings together in one volume the various phases of the subject which are important both to the individual seeking guidance in selecting a career and to the teacher entrusted with the responsibility of counseling.

Todd, William B. (ed.). Edmund Burke: *Reflections on the Revolutions in France*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. vi + 308. \$1.25.

This edition is the first to represent the authentic text of Burke's *Reflections*, a book rightly acclaimed as one of the hundred most significant in English literature, yet grossly debased in every publication now available to the reader. Ultimately each reprint derives from one of the 1790-1792 editions published by James Dodsley, all of which, though in direct descent, occur in a series of widely varying authority.

Unger, Maurice A. *Real Estate* (2nd ed.). Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1959. Pp. x + 710.

The purpose of this volume is to provide a basic means of understanding the economics of real property and the techniques of handling real property transactions for the student of business administration; for the practitioner seeking a greater knowledge of fundamentals; and for consumers who desire to learn how to select, finance, and maintain property either for a home or for investment purposes.

Vincent, William S. *Roles of the Citizen*. Evanston, Ill.: Row Peterson and Co., 1959. Pp. viii + 456.

While this book stresses the practical approach to politics, it does not slight the importance of factual knowledge. The practical projects to be undertaken in conjunction with the study of each of the five units require factual knowledge and provide practical experience in political action.

Yoder, Dale and Heneman, H. G., Jr. *Labor Economics and Industrial Relations*. Cincinnati: South-Western Publishing Co., 1959. Pp. x + 726.

This textbook is designed to serve (1) as a general introduction to the broad field of modern industrial relations and to such other industrial relations courses as may be offered and (2) as a background in citizenship training for those who take no additional courses in the field.

Zapf, Rosalind M. *Democratic Processes in the Secondary Classroom*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. viii + 471.

This practical, usable book gives step-by-step assistance to the teacher in achieving success with a democratically operating group of pupils.

Zietz, Dorothy. *Child Welfare: Principles and Methods*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 384. \$5.50.

Treating the child welfare movement as a social force, the author describes the historical and contemporary aspects of the field. Dr. Zietz delineates the interdisciplinary development of this movement, and interprets the roles of psychiatry, psychology, education, medicine, and law in this process. Emphasis is on the philosophy of child welfare, the services provided, and the present methods and practices.

From the Executive Director's Desk

EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR.

A STUDY of purposes of junior colleges as published in catalogs would undoubtedly reveal that the first function mentioned is that of offering two years of work acceptable for transfer to colleges and universities. This is the "isthmian" function in the words of Dr. Leonard V. Koos. As he put it:

Many who take thought for the first time of the function of the junior college are inclined to look upon this new unit in the school system solely as a sort of isthmus connecting the mainland of elementary and secondary education with the peninsula of professional and advanced academic training.

Professor Koos pointed out, however, that many of the friends of this movement expect much more of it than that it shall be a mere "neck of land between two large bodies of land." As these institutions have developed, the "university parallel" work has been supplemented by other offerings to meet needs of students who do not plan to transfer to four-year institutions. A large proportion of junior colleges now recognize the following services as elements in their programs:

1. Education and training for the student who wishes to complete his formal schooling in the two-year college.
2. General education to prepare youth for effective personal and community living.
3. Orientation and guidance to help the student discover his best talents, find a direction in life, and prepare successfully for a vocation.

4. Courses equivalent to lower-division work in senior colleges leading to satisfactory accomplishment in upper-division studies in liberal arts, education, science and engineering.
5. Adult and continuing education.
6. Specialized short courses of many kinds to up-grade employed persons.

Different kinds of junior colleges will select different phases of these programs for emphasis. Notwithstanding the urgent need to strengthen programs for the student who has no intention of transferring, it is quite clear that the function of preparing the student for upper-division work in the university will continue to be an important assignment for junior colleges.

COMMITTEE ON JUNIOR AND SENIOR COLLEGES

In recognition of the fact that thousands of students will transfer annually from junior to senior colleges, a committee on junior and senior colleges was established in 1957 by the Association of American Colleges and the American Association of Junior Colleges. The committee owes its origin to a feeling within both associations that channels of communication between these two types of institutions needed to be improved. It was felt in both organizations that a body should be set up to clarify areas of mutual interest and to explore ways in which the two-year and four-year colleges can

better coordinate their individual and unique functions.

In its first 26 months of operation the committee has met formally five times—in July, 1957, in January, March and October, 1958, and in January, 1959. Expenses for the committee representatives of the American Association of Junior Colleges have been met by a grant from the United States Steel Foundation. Between meetings there has been a vigorous exchange of ideas by correspondence; and various committee members have also taken part in a number of panel discussions on the relationship between the two types of institutions. These were held at the committee's suggestion in conjunction with annual meetings of the Association of American Colleges, the American Association of Junior Colleges, and the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers.

The committee originally was composed of three representatives from AAC and three from AAJC. However, in March, 1958, it was decided to invite the participation of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, and the committee now has three representatives from that organizations as well, for a total of nine members. On occasion, interested observers have been asked to sit in on the deliberations.

FINDINGS OF THE COMMITTEE

To date, the committee has concentrated on defining its task and on pinpointing the areas in which relations between two- and four-year colleges need to be improved. At its third meeting in March, 1958, it agreed on the following three-pronged program of action:

1. To find out what is actually happening in the country with regard to articulation between two- and four-year colleges.
2. To establish the areas that need to be studied in depth.
3. To develop a statement of recommendations reflecting the views of the participating organizations.

As a first step in carrying out this program, the committee submitted, in the summer of 1958, a set of questions to a selected group of ten universities, 15 four-year colleges and 25 junior colleges:

1. Is there a need for both the four-year and two year colleges to strengthen guidance services available to transfer students in recognition of the peculiar problems of the student moving from one type of institution to another?
2. Should the four-year institutions increase the number of scholarships and employment opportunities available to junior college graduates?
3. Are we entering a period in which we will use more tests for transfer and placement? What is the role of testing in guidance and placements of students? What tests would be of value?
4. Should the four-year institutions give consideration to a policy of reserving a certain number of upper-division spaces each year for transferring students from junior colleges?
5. What barriers exist to effective transfer? Can these be reduced: (a) reduction of the grades of the transferring student to a *C* level; (b) requiring a year's waiting period before the transfer student is eligible for varsity athletics; (c) course patterns and sequences which require the student entering the upper division to "make up" a substantial amount of lower division work.
6. Is there a need to encourage professional interrelationships between faculty and staff personnel of the two-year and the four-year institutions?
7. Will the senior institutions be willing to engage in a study of the quality of junior college transfers?

As might have been expected, there was some divergence of opinion on these questions, both among the different types of institutions queried and among institutions of the same type. However, there was also considerable unanimity—enough so that when the committee met in October, 1958, it felt emboldened to draft the tentative statement of policy which follows and to solicit reaction and criticism from the conventions of the three associations:

I. Four-year and two-year colleges should seek better means of communication in regard to mutual problems. The following procedures are suggested:

1. Transfer regulations published in catalogs.
2. State and regional conferences on mutual problems.
3. Visitations in both directions.
4. Maximum participation by college faculty and administrative personnel in professional associations that cut across lines of institutions by type.
5. Familiarization of appropriate personnel with the publications of AAC, AAJC and AACRAO.

II. Both four-year and two-year colleges should make continuing studies of the academic success of transfers and problems met by transferring students. In this connection, the four-year colleges should furnish to two-year colleges records made by the transferring students. Research is needed in the following fields:

1. Academic problems of transfers.
2. Reasons for seemingly excessive drop-outs of junior college transfers.
3. Participation by college transfers in student activities.

4. Means of meeting financial needs of transfers.

III. For purposes of admission and acceptance of credit, the four-year college should treat the two-year college applicant no less favorably than the transfer applicant from a four-year college.

IV. The transfer student should not be subjected to any qualifying test not applicable to the "native" student.

V. Courses taken in one college should be accepted for transfer credit if the content fits the educational purposes of the receiving college.

VI. Junior college grading practices should be such as to provide the student with reliable guidance in the choice of a four-year college and his major field of study.

VII. The four-year college should provide for due consideration of two-year college grades in the award of scholarships, honor standing, and election to honorary societies.

VIII. Four-year colleges should study the desirability of increasing the proportion of upper-division students and should recognize the two-year college as a source of desirable students.

IX. Four-year colleges should give special consideration to educational needs of the graduate of the two-year college because he cannot continue beyond the second year at the two-year institution.

The above statement was considered informally at the most recent annual meeting of each of the three participating organizations and reaction was urged. It should be emphasized that the statement

was in the form of a "working paper" and not meant to be a final report of the committee. There may be substantial disagreement in regard to some items. At the Long Beach convention of the American Association of Junior Colleges, the discussion group reaction was summarized as follows:

FOUR-YEAR COLLEGES

1. The four-year college admissions policy for transfer students should differentiate between students who could have met the admissions standards as freshmen and those who could not.
2. Under the accreditation system of American higher education, a four-year accredited institution has an obligation to accept credit from a two-year institution which has equivalent accreditation.
3. An accredited four-year college should accept from an accredited two-year college all courses that are certified by the junior college to be of college level and that are *similar* in content to the courses offered by the four-year college.
4. Four-year colleges should review carefully their policies of required subject patterns, upper-division courses and respectability of subjects as these policies affect two-year college transfer.
5. Four-year colleges must accept the fact that the differences which may exist in student characteristics and course equivalents between a two-year college and a four-year college may not be any greater than the differences between two four-year colleges.
6. A four-year college accepting transfer students from several two-year colleges and four-year colleges must develop, insofar as possible, a program of achievement and evaluation that will insure that all students, "native" and transfer, meet a satisfactory standard.
7. The four-year college admissions policy and policy of accepting transfer credit should be based upon a comprehensive study by, and the recommendations of, ad-

ministration and faculty. This implies participation by a competent officer representing the area of admissions.

TWO-YEAR COLLEGES

1. A two-year college, in developing its course and program offerings, should study carefully the transfer patterns of its students.
2. A two-year college, in preparing students for transfer to several colleges offering various kinds of programs, must emphasize to these students the differences in the programs without creating the attitude that these differences represent degrees of "academic respectability."
3. In order to facilitate the guidance function, two-year colleges must identify and describe all courses in such a manner that students may clearly understand the intent and nature of such courses.
4. In order to preserve the attitude of trust and confidence of receiving institutions, and to facilitate the evaluation of two-year college courses, the two-year colleges have an obligation to identify and describe their course offerings. Courses may be identified by a numbering system, adequate titles, and, in some cases, by statements relating to college and university parallel. Descriptions should be sufficiently complete and specific to permit rapid appraisals and should include prerequisites, when applicable, hours of lecture and laboratory, in addition to unit value.
5. Junior colleges must not become so concerned with the transfer problem that they will weaken their other functions.

NEXT STEPS

The committee met again, October 7, to consider the next steps in its work. Among these are:

1. By means of a sampling approach to determine what, in fact, are the problems encountered by students in transferring from junior college to four-year institutions.

2. Examine methods being used in various parts of the country to facilitate the transfer process.
3. Formulate a statement of recommendations to the associations involved which would include principles and procedures directed toward conserving the welfare of the student in the transfer process.

Serious consideration by the committee is being given to the possibility of preparing a handbook which would cover the foregoing three items and which would represent the official position of the three associations.

This I Tried and Found Helpful

Conserving Choir Rehearsal Time

Russell A. Schwejda, Casper College, Casper, Wyoming

The choir directors in most junior colleges with limited enrollments must rely to a great extent on the general student body for their choir membership since the number of music majors is usually quite small. This means that a large per cent of the choir members may not be adequate note readers.

When introducing a new choral number to the choir, the writer has found it helpful to give the new material first to

the sight singing class of approximately ten students. At choir rehearsal this small group sings the number, and the entire choir is then able to learn it much more readily than if they had not heard it before. Five or ten minutes spent in the sight reading class on new choral numbers has saved the writer many hours of tedious rehearsing with the full choir of 120 voices.

The Junior College

EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR.

A study of Florida junior college transfer students in the Florida State University during the fall semester of 1958 has been completed by Dr. W. Hugh Stickler, Director of Institutional Research and Service. The study is the fourth in an annual series. Among the summary statements and conclusions are the following:

A total of 247 students qualified for the study. The total group of all Florida junior college transfer students combined approached the same grade point average in the University that they had earned in junior college before transfer.

During their first semester of enrollment in the University, the students quite frequently suffer "GPA shocks." After the first semester they usually recover rapidly from these GPA losses and go on to do university work comparable in quality to the junior college work they did before transfer.

Junior college graduates as a group did better work than many FSU groups (e.g., the student body as a whole, fraternities, the freshman class, the sophomore class, the junior class, all upperclassmen combined, and all undergraduates combined) during the fall semester, 1958-59.

Of the 247 junior college transfer students studied, 190 had FSTGTP scores available (Florida Statewide Twelfth Grade Testing

Program). Of these 190 students, 33 (17.4%) held scores of 200 or less. These students would not have been readily admitted to the Florida State University as first-time freshmen. After transferring to the University from junior college the majority of these students earned "satisfactory" or better GPA's during the fall semester, 1958-59. The median GPA for these students was 2.35, the mean GPA was 2.43 (A=4; B=3; C=2; D=1).

* * *

Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, is planning what President Seymour A. Smith anticipates will be the "most distinctive educational complex to be erected on any American campus in the near future . . ." A Learning Center is in the preliminary planning stages which will include the library with its books and new study spaces, an audio-visual closed-circuit television center which will be both a repository of information and the source for dissemination of information to classrooms throughout the campus, a language laboratory for improving and accelerating language instruction through use of recording and playback equipment, an area with high fidelity recording and listening equipment for humanities and speech instruction, a gallery for art dis-

play, and classroom space in which students and faculty can draw upon all these resources.

An interrelated cluster of structures is projected, each related to a core Learning Center which will house the library-audio-visual-TV center, art gallery and other commonly used resources. Cost of the project has been estimated at 2½ million. The Ford Foundation's Educational Facilities Laboratory has underwritten the cost for preliminary planning.

* * *

Community colleges near Michigan State University will be involved in a program to improve teacher training programs. A grant from the Ford Foundation Fund for the Advancement of Education to the University will support the program which emphasizes liberal education for teachers, internship experience, development of a team approach to teaching, and a sharing of responsibility for teacher training by universities and school systems. Participants in the project will take most of their course work in community colleges near their homes, attending three summer sessions at the university. For advanced work the university will send staff members to the community colleges.

Trainees will become interns at schools located in communities where the colleges themselves are situated. Internships will provide students with the equivalent of three years of supervised classroom activities. During the two years students will earn part-time salaries. The program, contrasted with current curricular arrangements, offers eight times as much classroom observation and teaching experience, an additional 42 hours of gen-

eral-liberal education, twice as much work in elementary school teaching fields, and integration of formal course work with direct observation and classroom teaching experience.

* * *

The junior college movement in Washington State from 1915 to 1955 has been studied as a doctoral project by Allan Price Crawford, Coordinator of Evening and Part-time Education at Everett Junior College, Everett, Washington. The thesis was submitted to the faculty of the School of Education at the University of Denver. Based upon his analysis of the history of the junior colleges in his state, Crawford makes proposals for the further development of these institutions:

1. Washington's state-wide system of junior college organization should be consolidated and expanded.
2. In the near future, the state's system of junior colleges should be increased by a number of units.
3. Washington junior colleges should avoid the danger of "spreading themselves too thin."
4. Washington junior colleges should give increasing emphasis to (a) vocational education, (b) terminal education, (c) adult education.
5. These institutions should increase the quantity and quality of their guidance services.
6. The junior colleges should continue to attempt to educate people from all walks of life.

* * *

Junior colleges in Japan now number about 270. According to Professor Akira Watanabe of Hiroshima University, the junior colleges (Tankidaigaku, short-term colleges) have been patterned after the junior colleges in America following the advice of Dr. Walter C. Eells. The junior colleges in Japan are a postwar

phenomenon. Ten years ago they became a part of the system of higher education in that nation. The question was raised a few years ago whether or not these institutions should direct their attention more specifically to technical education (Senkadaigaku, technical college). The Junior College Association of Japan opposed reduction of the general education objectives and in this position was supported by leading professors of education.

Mr. Minoru Nakahara, Executive Director of the Japan Association of Junior Colleges, has expressed the view of that association that intervisitation of personnel representing the American and Japanese institutions would be of great value. In the words of Mr. Nakahara:

Certainly it can do much for the promotion of junior college education when the faculties of American and Japanese junior colleges meet together to report the present conditions of junior college education, administration, and management in both countries, and exchange views on how to promote our junior colleges. We firmly believe junior college education has contributed much for the elevation of scholarship and culture in each country. When we keep this in mind our responsibility is quite heavy, and we feel it is our duty to fulfill and develop our junior colleges in Japan, even though the history of the junior colleges here is very young.

* * *

A notable step has been taken by the public institutions of higher education in Florida in recognizing the responsibility of each institution for its own curriculum. General education requirements have often been a problem for the student transferring from one institution to another. Frequently a junior college has been confronted by the unpleasant alternatives of shaping its own program to

match the general education patterns of the university to which its graduates might be transferring or suffering the negative public relations effect of the students' being required to take additional time in meeting the general education requirements of the receiving institution. The following policy regarding general education in Florida public higher education went into effect this fall.

Each public institution of higher education in Florida, i.e., each state university and each community junior college, is encouraged to foster and promulgate a program of general education. This basic program for students working toward a baccalaureate degree should involve not less than 36 hours of academic credit. (Note: General education programs provide basic liberal education and include work in areas such as communications, mathematics, social sciences, humanities, and the natural sciences.)

The institutions are encouraged to exchange ideas in the development and improvement of programs of general education. The experience already gained in the established state universities and community junior colleges will be of value. While the institutions are to work cooperatively in the development and improvement of general education programs, each institution has the continuing responsibility for determining the character of its own program.

After a public institution of higher learning in Florida has developed and published its program of general education, the integrity of the program will be recognized by the other public institutions in Florida. Once a student has been certified by such an institution as having completed satisfactorily its prescribed general education program, no other public institution of higher learning in Florida to which he may be qualified to transfer will require any further lower division general education courses in his program.

* * *

The American Association of Junior Colleges has been awarded a grant of

\$28,100 by the National Science Foundation for the support of an "Exchange Visit" of a group of United States technical institute educators with an equivalent group from the intermediate technicums of the USSR. The project is under the direction of Dr. Otto Klitgord, President, New York City Community College, Brooklyn, New York. Objectives of the exchange visit are:

1. To make a comparative study of Soviet and United States training programs of technicians and other semi-professionals who assist engineers, scientists, and other professionals in industry,
2. To visit technicums and to see at first hand their programs, facilities, and personnels, and
3. To collect information on the program of the technicums.

The composition of the United States group will be representative of the various kinds of institutions interested in and responsible for technical education in this country. Several specialized reports and one consolidated report will be prepared and made available to all interested parties through professional publications and press releases. Announcement of team members and dates of the visit are pending further arrangements through the East-West Contact office of the United States Department of State.

* * *

Ohio's Governor Michael DiSalle vetoed a bill that would have authorized the establishment of two-year colleges

throughout the state. According to press reports, the reasons for the veto included the fact that the bill set no limit on the number of institutions that could be started, and that no funds were provided although the bill committed the state to support construction of the colleges. Further planning and studying is to be undertaken by the Department of Economic and Industrial Development with the intention of preparing a new program for the attention of the Legislature in the 1961 session. One of the basic questions remaining to be resolved is the definition of the colleges' major purpose: Should they be primarily for students wishing to transfer to other colleges after two years or should the colleges concentrate on curriculums for students whose main interests are in two-year technical terminal programs?

* * *

An enrollment report from the California Bureau of Junior College Education states that in the college year 1958-59 73.3 per cent of all full-time students enrolled in public higher education in California below the junior year were in junior college. The University of California enrolled 10.6 per cent and the state colleges 16.1 per cent of these students. Of the part-time students (excluding adults), 92.2 per cent were in the junior colleges, 6.6 per cent in the state colleges, and 1.2 per cent in the University of California.



Recent Writings... **JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS**

Home Economics—Careers and Homemaking, by Olive A. Hall (301 pp.; John Wiley).

Home Economics—Careers and Homemaking, as the author emphasizes, was written for the student from the viewpoint that training in home economics serves the dual purpose of preparing the individual for personal and home life as well as for a career. It was planned for use in a general introductory course for college home economics students. As stated by the author, its purposes are: to present home economics as a field for college study, to trace the growth and development of home economics, to increase appreciation of homemaking as a career, to survey opportunities for occupations that are open to home economics graduates, to guide students in selecting and qualifying for a suitable occupation, and to inspire students to be alert to opportunities for personal and professional growth.

The author has included a glossary of occupations related to home economics so that the inexperienced student will have an understanding of what is ex-

pected in certain occupations. Excellent guides are given for such problems as:

- a. reaching a vocational decision
- b. combining homemaking with a career
- c. understanding opportunities in foreign services
- d. working with children, youth and families
- e. finding out about career opportunities in the local community
- f. locating part-time or summer employment
- g. information for various career fields and professional organizations.

In her first chapter, "Home Economics in Higher Education," Dr. Hall discusses such topics as Adjustment to College Life, Home Economics in Your College, the Home Economics Curriculum. The second chapter considers the pioneers in education for women—Emma Willard, Catherine Beecher, and Mary Lyon, Women in Today's Colleges, Present Goals of Higher Education. Chapter three is concerned with the roots of home economics, early public schools, early college programs, cooking schools, kitchen garden, New England kitchen, the Lake Placid Conferences and the outreach of these conferences into the community, the development of early subject areas, the organization of the American Home

Economics Association, legislation affecting the growth of home economics and early leaders: Ellen H. Richards, Wilbur Olin Atwater, Mary Hinman Abel, Annie G. Dewey, Alfred C. True, Isabel Bevier, Charles Langworthy, Martha Van Rensselaer, Henry C. Sherman, Catherine Blunt, and Louise Stanley. The author also relates the growth of home economics throughout the years and includes a chronological summary of important events from 1798 to 1952.

Chapter 4, "A Vocational Goal," covers such topics as Discovering Yourself, Interests, Abilities, Personal Adjustment, Vocational Opportunities, Guides for Studying Vocations, including nature of work, working conditions, opportunities available, advancement, related opportunities, contacts with people, financial benefits, personal characteristics, professional aids, advantages, disadvantages, and a glossary of home economics occupations.

Chapter 5 deals with Professional Standing of Home Economics, Goals of a Homemaker, Personal Qualities of a Homemaker, Satisfactions Derived from Homemaking, while chapter 6 considers the outlook for elementary schools and secondary schools, with adult education and with colleges and universities.

Chapter 7 contains information regarding the Home Demonstration Agent, Youth Group Leader, Home Economist in Journalism, Radio and Television, Home Economist in Advertising, Public Relations, or Testing.

Chapter 8, "The Home Economist in Business," Chapter 9, "Opportunities Related to Clothing and Textiles," Chapter 10, "A Future in Food Service or Nutrition Education," Chapter 11, "The Chal-

lenge of Research," all deal with careers, the nature of work involved in each, training and education, opportunities for advancement, conditions for work, keys for success.

In chapter 12, the author stresses the necessity of making a wise professional choice by employing self-analysis, gaining occupational information, growing with the profession by working in related jobs either part-time or during the summer, and studying opportunities and requirements for advancement in the profession.

At the end of each chapter are a summary and questions to encourage further study of material presented in each chapter. Selected reference lists are also included.

Personal and Family Finance, by Joseph F. Bradley and Ralph H. Wherry (564 pp.; Rinehart).

In writing *Personal and Family Finance*, Bradley and Wherry have brought together an unusually complete body of facts of finance which they have organized systematically. The information should be especially useful to young adults in obtaining reliable information for adequately planning their financial future. It should also be useful to the individual who is ready to make some long-term investments or to someone who is particularly interested in creating an estate.

Basically, the book is divided into four general parts, preceded by the introductory chapter on the role of personal finance in any individual's life which points out the potential monetary value of a college education. Chapters 2 through 7 deal with acquiring and handling income—from the earning of a

salary, budgeting, banking, and consumer credit to buying a home. Chapters 8 through 22 consider such matters as insuring one's possessions and life, opportunities for investing surplus wealth, and taxation and plans for creating an estate.

The life cycle of family finance is stressed in all such matters as budgeting, home ownership vs. renting, insurance, use of consumer credit, and savings. Special attention is given to the financing of retirement and old age. The financial protection of the family's future is discussed in detail in the full explanation of all forms of insurance—social security, property insurance, casualty insurance, life insurance and annuities, and disability insurance.

There is an ample supply of practical material on investments for long-term objectives. The authors discuss United States savings bonds, postal certificates, municipal bonds, savings accounts in banks, shares in savings and loan associations, shares in credit unions, real estate as an investment, savings through employer-sponsored plans, life insurance

as an investment, trusts, common stocks and preferred stocks, corporation bonds, investment companies and variable annuities. They also consider the advantages and disadvantages of the small business as an investment. Taxation is discussed from the point of view of family financial planning as a whole, with consideration given the federal income tax and the tax aspects of estate planning. The authors have included much worthwhile material in their two final chapters on wills and estate planning.

Personal and Family Finance is generously equipped with more than 150 up-to-date tables and charts that supply comparative data on all aspects of family finance. Suggested readings, summaries and questions for class discussion are included at the end of each chapter.

Bradley and Wherry have produced a valuable book which covers each topic thoroughly, although some junior college students may feel it is too detailed.

Ione Petersen
Pueblo College
Pueblo, Colorado

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

JAMES W. REYNOLDS, *Editor*

MARION KENNEDY, *Associate Editor*

EDITORIAL BOARD

Representing the Regional Junior College Associations

BONNIE E. CONE

*Charlotte College
Charlotte, North Carolina*

WARD AUSTIN

*College of Marin
Kentfield, California*

WILLIAM S. GOULD

*Graceland College
Lamoni, Iowa*

HORACE WUBBEN

*Mesa College
Grand Junction, Colorado*

FREDERICK C. FERRY

*Pine Manor Junior College
Wellesley, Massachusetts*

JOHN L. CLARKE

*Ricks College
Reburb, Idaho*

PHILIP KLEIN

*Harcourt Junior College
Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania*

REECE D. McLENDON

*Northwest Mississippi Junior College
Senatobia, Mississippi*

BOOK REVIEW EDITORS

JAMES BLASING

*Pueblo College
Pueblo, Colorado*

EDMOND M. GAGEY

*Bradford Junior College
Bradford, Massachusetts*

JOHN H. HARRINGTON

*Division of Instructional Services
Los Angeles Board of Education
Los Angeles, California*

J. V. HOWELL

*Mars Hill College
Mars Hill, North Carolina*

LUIS M. MORTON, JR.

*Odessa College
Odessa, Texas*

ANNA BLANCHE MURPHY

*Union Junior College
Cranford, New Jersey*

IONE PETERSEN

*Pueblo College
Pueblo, Colorado*

JACK C. TRELOAR

*Hinds Junior College
Raymond, Mississippi*

MEYER WEINBERG

*Wright Junior College
Chicago, Illinois*

THOMAS Y. WHITLEY

*Columbus College
Columbus, Georgia*

VERNON E. WOOD

*Mars Hill College
Mars Hill, North Carolina*

American Association of Junior Colleges

OFFICERS

MARVIN C. KNUDSON, *President*

*Pueblo Junior College
Pueblo, Colorado*

EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR., *Executive Director*

Washington, D. C.

HENRY W. LITTLEFIELD, *Vice President*

*Junior College of Connecticut
Bridgeport, Connecticut*

R. I. MELAND, *Convention Secretary*

*Austin Junior College
Austin, Minnesota*

C. C. COLVERT, *Chairman*

*Council on Research and Services
The University of Texas
Austin, Texas*

BOARD OF DIRECTORS

OSCAR H. EDINGER, JR.

*Mt. San Antonio College
Pomona, California*

CHARLES L. HARMAN

*Bluefield College
Bluefield, Virginia*

WILLIAM P. MILLER

*Weber College
Ogden, Utah*

KENNETH FREEMAN

*Christian College
Columbia, Missouri*

GEORGE O. KILDOW

*North Idaho Junior College
Coeur d'Alene, Idaho*

HAROLD BENTLEY

*Worcester Junior College
Worcester, Massachusetts*

DONALD E. DEYO

*Montgomery Junior College
Takoma Park, Maryland*

COUNCIL ON RESEARCH AND SERVICE

BONNIE E. CONE, *Editorial Board*

*Charlotte College
Charlotte, North Carolina*

ROBERT HANNELLY, *Instruction*

*Phoenix College
Phoenix, Arizona*

FREDERIC T. GILES, *Administration*

*Everett Junior College
Everett, Washington*

KENNETH G. SKAGGS, *Legislation*

*Chipola Junior College
Marianna, Florida*

MARVIN K. PETERSON, *Curriculum*

*New Haven College
New Haven, Connecticut*

ELEANOR TUPPER, *Student Personnel*

*Kendall Junior College
Beverly, Massachusetts*

TEXTS From Prentice-Hall . . .

ELEMENTS OF PLANE TRIGONOMETRY

by HENRY SHARP, JR., Emory University

This new text is presented in the language and spirit of modern mathematics. The vocabulary of elementary mathematical analysis is introduced early in the text, and is used exclusively throughout the book. The subject matter will be of particular interest to Engineering (especially Electrical) and Science majors as well as to Mathematics majors. The more traditional applications of Trigonometry are also included in the presentation. Organization: The over-all plan of the text is simple. After a general, partly historical, introduction to the problems which led to the development of Trigonometry, the concepts which are fundamental to the understanding of modern mathematics are discussed in detail.

304 pp.

Pub. 1958

Text price \$3.25

ESSENTIAL MATHEMATICS FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

by FRANCIS J. MUELLER, Maryland State Teachers College

An elementary text with a thorough, meaningful review of basic arithmetic processes. Algebra is developed as a natural extension of basic ideas of arithmetic. Topics through quadratics and imaginary numbers are covered. An extensive number of examples of mathematical operations is provided to clarify text explanations, with step-by-step solutions for each. In addition, approx. 1500 problems are included in the exercises which follow important topics. Answers to these problems are supplied at the back of the book. A total of 250 problems is given in Achievement Tests to serve as a review, in exercise form, of all the student has previously studied.

288 pp.

Pub. 1957

Text price \$3.95

INTERMEDIATE ALGEBRA

by LYMAN M. KELLS, U. S. Naval Academy, Emeritus

Designed to fill the needs of the student with limited training in algebra as well as the student with no training prior to the freshman year, this text helps to guide him to a full understanding of the subject. Simplicity is the keynote of INTERMEDIATE ALGEBRA as it applies the basic laws of algebra, to cultivate understanding of algebraic procedures. For example, in Section 3 there is a discussion of the meaning of the parenthesis which illustrates its amazing power. Section 4 deals with the fundamental laws and places particular emphasis upon the law $a(b-c)=ab-ac$.

approx. 304 pp.

Pub. Feb. 1959

Text price \$4.95

To receive approval copies promptly, write: BOX 903

PRENTICE-HALL, Inc.

Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey



